

A COMPARISON OF TWO ADAPTIVE PREDICTION SYSTEMS

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SUMMARY

The technique of exponential smoothing has received much attention in the recent years. It is one of the most popular naive forecasting schemes, but unfortunately the smoothing constants are selected quantitatively through some crucial assumptions about the time series. To compensate for this defect, two evolutionary operation (EVOP) techniques have been developed to make the exponential smoothing parameters self-adaptive.

The two evolutionary operation procedures are the standard factorial design EVOP procedure, and the sequential application of the simplex design. They will be used to make the Winter's model self-adaptive. The model is made self-adaptive in the sense that the parameters in the model are automatically adjusted to compensate for changes in the basic nature of the time series. A direct comparison is made between the two methods through simulation.

Eight time series, possessing certain characteristics and with different magnitudes of the random components superimposed on them, are generated. The factorial EVOP and the simplex EVOP are then used to predict the eight time series. The general conclusions obtained are as follows:

1. Simplex EVOP is more sensitive to the choice of the initial values of the smoothing constants.
2. Factorial EVOP performs better than the simplex EVOP when

there is a presence of some periodic factor in the series.

3. Simplex EVOP performs better than the factorial EVOP when there is a presence of a trend factor in the series.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Forecasting the value of a time series using available observations can provide an important basis for (a) economic and business planning, (b) production planning, (c) inventory and production control and (d) control and optimization of industrial processes. Therefore, the problem of making good forecasts is of special interest to managers, salesmen, economists, engineers and others who are concerned with quantity and quality of industrial products. Moreover, almost all economic and business decisions depend on forecasting to reduce the doubts and uncertainties in decision making. Forecasting is then of vital importance to the successful operation of business enterprises.

Methods of short-term forecasting were classified by the late Charles S. Roos (7), one of the founders of the econometric society, into five categories: (1) naive methods, (2) leading indexes, (3) comparative pressures, (4) opinion polls, and (5) econometrics. This thesis will be concerned with scientific methods of forecasting future values of a time series based only on past data. Thus, the methods employed here are classified as naive.

Of the many methods of naive forecasting, exponential smoothing is one of the most well known and most successful. One of the main reasons for its widespread use is that it is accurate, since the model is fitted to the data by least squares, with the criteria of fit being

discounted in time. Also, it is efficient computationally, since one does not need to retain considerable historical data from one forecast to another. Finally, it is effective in fitting a wide class of models to a set of data.

Statement of the Problem

Regardless of the exponential smoothing model chosen, the ability of the forecasting system to track changes in the time series depends mainly on the choice of the smoothing constant. When the smoothing constant is small, say close to zero, more weight will be associated to the historical data. If the smoothing constant is large, say close to one, more weight will be placed on the current observations. Since exponential smoothing always requires an initial value of the smoothing constant to start the process, one is forced to choose an initial "optimal" smoothing constant. One of the disadvantages of exponential smoothing is that it suffers from the inability to select the smoothing constants quantitatively without making some rigid assumptions about the time series.

Another problem arises when the system encounters sudden changes in the underlying process. Then it will take an unacceptably long time for the system to adjust to, or track, the new signal. As a result, biased forecasts will occur, and continue for some time. Such a situation can be easily detected by the tracking signals. When the tracking signal goes out of control, one can then manually intervene, review the process and start the smoothing procedure all over again. However, when forecasts are being made regularly for many different

time series, it is very difficult to manually intervene effectively. It may also be prohibitively expensive. Consequently, effort has been made directly toward developing a system that will automatically monitor the smoothing constant, and change its value when the parameters in the underlying time series model change.

Objective of the Thesis

The objective of this thesis is to investigate two self-adaptive smoothing systems. Two evolutionary operation techniques will be used to make Winter's (10) model self-adaptive. The model is made self-adaptive in the sense that the parameters in the model are automatically adjusted to compensate for changes in the basic nature of the time series. Results obtained from the two self-adaptive systems will be compared. The specific thesis objectives are:

1. To determine which evolutionary operating technique is best. The criterion of optimality is the square of the forecast error.
2. To analyse the rate of response to standard input signals, such as step, impulse and ramp functions.
3. To determine whether the systems are sensitive to the choice of initial values of the smoothing constants and the size of the experimental designs used in the control procedure.

Survey of Adaptive Prediction Systems

Several examples of adaptive predicting or forecasting systems are found in the literature. These systems are predominantly used in forecasting sales or product demand. These systems do not necessarily

use Winter's model as the basic forecasting technique, but the adaptive nature of these systems are similar in the sense that they are based on the variation of parameters in the system in response to changes in the nature of the time series of interest. We shall briefly describe four major self-adaptive systems.

Chow (3) has developed a simple exponential model with linear trend correction assumed. He proposed that three forecasts be used, based on three different smoothing constants which are set at high, normal and low levels. To start the process, the smoothing constants are arbitrarily chosen and the actual forecast is made at the normal level. However, when one of the outer values of the smoothing constants yields a better forecast on the basis of an error criteria, the next forecast will be made based on this new "best" value. This new smoothing value is then established as the normal value for the coming time period. High and low smoothing constant values are re-established about the new normal value and the process is repeated.

Trigg and Leach (9) proposed a method of making the system self-adaptive by automatically varying the smoothing constant according to the value of the tracking signal. The tracking signal will fluctuate around zero, if the system is in control. However, if biased errors occur, the value of the tracking signal will move towards plus or minus unity, according to the direction of bias. In order to achieve the self-adaptive response rate, Trigg and Leach set the smoothing constant equal to the modulus of the tracking signal. In this way, the value of the smoothing constant will increase when forecasts go out of control

so as to give more weight to the recent observations. Once the system has accommodated the new situation, the value of the smoothing constant is reduced, so as to give weight to past data.

Roberts and Reed (6) have developed a self adaptive forecasting technique (SAFT) which combines the exponential forecasting models of Winter with a response surface analysis technique to test the effects on forecast accuracy of varying the exponential smoothing parameters in the forecasting model. The basic exponential procedure uses a two level factorial design, in which each smoothing constant will be held at a low and a high level. In addition to the factorial points, a center point is added to the design to determine the curvature of the response surface. If an effect of varying one or more of the smoothing parameters is statistically significant, then the center point of the experimental design is shifted accordingly. Successive forecasts are the parameter combination defining the center point of the experimental design. Whenever, the center point is moved, the combination of smoothing parameters used in computing the forecast is changed.

Montgomery (4) has also proposed an evolutionary operation scheme for the adaptive control of exponential smoothing parameters. However, the chosen experimental design is different from that used by Roberts and Reed. He recommends the use of the simplex, which is an orthogonal first order experimental design requiring only one more observation than the number of variables under investigation. The procedure involves changing the exponential smoothing parameters each period by the sequential application of the simplex design. A new simplex is formed

each period by deleting only one point from the previous simplex and adding one new point as defined by fixed relationships. The point that is deleted each period is the parameter combination which yields the forecast resulting in the largest forecast error. Thus the design will, theoretically, insure that the forecasting system will traverse the parameter space from points of high forecast error to points of lower forecast error.

Roberts and Reed have shown their work to be superior to those of Chow and Winter. Montgomery has shown his procedure to be better than that of Chow. Since the main objective of this study is to compare the work of Roberts and Reed and that of Montgomery, detailed description of their schemes will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER II

PSEUDO EVOLUTIONARY OPERATION PROCEDURES

This chapter will present a detailed description of the two response surface techniques which will be investigated in this thesis. The name "response surface" was coined by Box (1) to denote surfaces which are formed by the "response" of a certain criterion from various combinations of environmental or independent factors. In this thesis the square of the forecast error is used as the criterion and the exponential smoothing parameters are the environmental factors. The square of the forecast error was chosen for several reasons. It is most commonly used in forecasting as a criterion to be minimized. For response surface analysis, the square of the error always insures values of the response surface greater than or equal to zero. It also places more emphasis on larger errors which tend to make the convex surface more pronounced. The forecast error is defined as

$$E(t+1) = F(t+1) - X(t+1)$$

where $F(t+1)$ is the one-period ahead forecast made at time t , and $X(t+1)$ is the actual observation of the time series at time $t+1$. Thus, square of the forecast error is then equal to $E(t+1)^2$.

Several response surface methods are used in various kinds of practical problems; however, the methods to be investigated here are

known as Evolutionary Operation (EVOP). These techniques imitate the natural evolutionary process described by Box (1) in that they consist of systematically introducing variation in selected independent variables which affect the process, and then in some manner select the best operating conditions. In this way, information is produced in a systematic manner and the results are immediately applied. The perturbations introduced through EVOP are aside from normal process variability; and from information gleaned through this variation, EVOP gradually pushes the process toward its optimal operating conditions.

Something to point out that the philosophy here is not the same as the original EVOP. We have replication of each design point at every period, and original EVOP does not. Also, the original EVOP assumes that only small changes in the independent variables can be made, while we can make any sort of changes in the smoothing constants as we wish. For short, we will call our pseudo-EVOP procedure EVOP.

Two EVOP techniques are to be investigated. One procedure is just the usual EVOP described by Box (1) and more recently by Box and Draper (2), which utilizes the 2^k factorial experimental design. The other technique, described by Spendley (8), utilizes the simplex design.

Factorial EVOP

The forecasting model determines forecasts based on various values of the smoothing constants from the experimental design. As soon as the actual observation is determined, the response surface for the combination of the smoothing constants is formed according to the square of the forecast error. Then, using the modified EVOP, the effects of the smoothing constants are tested at 99 percent confi-

dence levels for significant changes. If the changes are significant, the design is then adjusted. Consequently, the smoothing constants are changed, resulting a redefined forecasting system.

Three cases may be developed from this approach:

1. A one-parameter system, where there is no trend or seasonality.
2. A two-parameter system where there is either a trend or a seasonal factor only.
3. A three-parameter system, which is for both trend and seasonal models.

However, we are only interested in the two-parameter and the three-parameter systems. The actual operations of these two systems will be described in detail.

The two-parameter model is used to forecast time series which can be described by a two-parameter system. The forecasts are made in accordance with the 2^2 factorial design with a center point as shown in Figure 1.

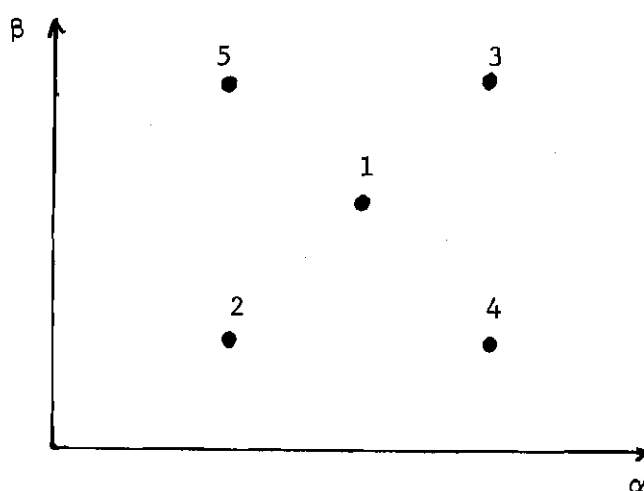


Figure 1. 2^2 Factorial Experimental Design.

The effects are:

$$\text{Effect of } \alpha = \frac{1}{2} (\bar{r}_3 + \bar{r}_4 - \bar{r}_5 - \bar{r}_2)$$

$$\text{Effect of } \beta = \frac{1}{2} (\bar{r}_3 + \bar{r}_5 - \bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_4)$$

where $\bar{r}_1, \bar{r}_2, \dots, \bar{r}_5$ are the average response surface values at the respective experimental design points. It will be noticed here that it is necessary only to determine main effects, since no meaningful information would result from an analysis of the interactions. The 99 percent confidence limits are:

$$\pm 3 \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} s$$

when n is the cycle number and s is the standard error of the response surface. If either or both effects turn out to be significant the experimental design is shifted in the direction indicated. The upper and lower bounds of the smoothing constants are 0.95 and 0.05, respectively.

The three parameter model can be applied to series which contain both trend and seasonality. Thus, three smoothing constants are involved. A 2^3 factorial plus a center point experimental design is employed. It is an extension of the two-parameter system. The associated design matrix is

$$D = \begin{array}{ccc} & \alpha & \beta & \hat{y} \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

Each row in D represents a point at one of the eight vertices of the cube formed about the center point. A one represents a high level of the variable and a zero represents a low level. Figure 2 represents a graphical display of the center point and the factorial design surrounding it. If the forecasting model is operated at each of these eight points, then the corresponding response surface value can be obtained.

The effects of varying each parameter can now be obtained. If the effect or effects are statistically significant at 99 percent level, then it is necessary to move the center point in such a way to decrease the response. For example, if the effect of α exceeded the positive limit, then it will hopefully decrease the next period's actual forecast error if the value of α is decreased.

The expressions for the effects of the three-parameters are

$$\text{effect of } \alpha = \frac{1}{4} [\bar{r}_2 + \bar{r}_3 + \bar{r}_4 + \bar{r}_5 - \bar{r}_6 - \bar{r}_7 - \bar{r}_8 - \bar{r}_9]$$

$$\text{effect of } \beta = \frac{1}{4} [\bar{r}_3 + \bar{r}_4 + \bar{r}_6 + \bar{r}_7 - \bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_5 - \bar{r}_8 - \bar{r}_9]$$

$$\text{effect of } \gamma = \frac{1}{4} [\bar{r}_6 + \bar{r}_4 + \bar{r}_5 + \bar{r}_9 - \bar{r}_7 - \bar{r}_3 - \bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_8]$$

where $\bar{r}_1, \bar{r}_2, \dots, \bar{r}_9$ are the average response surface values at the respective experimental design points. The limits are

$$\pm 3 \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}n} \quad s$$

and the upper and lower bounds for the smoothing constants are 0.95 and 0.05, respectively.

This 2^3 factorial design differs somewhat from the usual three parameter EVOP involves blocking in order to eliminate time effects

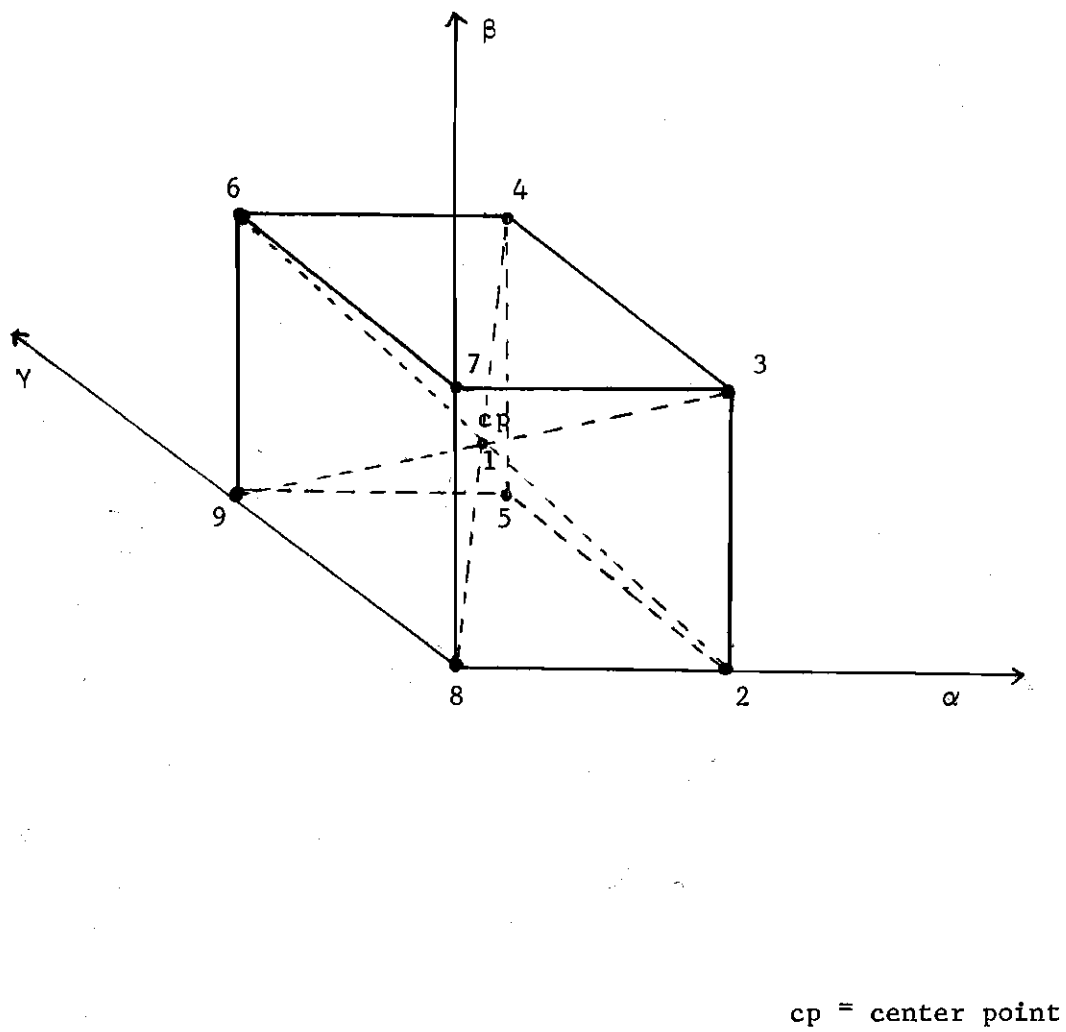


Figure 2. 2^3 Factorial Experimental Design.

ordinarily found in industrial applications. EVOP was mainly developed for the chemical industry and since their experimentation involves changing the operating condition of a process over time, the data may be affected by the time effects in the process. This is especially true where considerable time passes between perturbations. However, in the production and control problem, time effects do not exist, since all responses can be determined simultaneously.

Sequential Simplex EVOP

An alternative method of Evolutionary Operation is the sequential simplex technique. This technique was first proposed by Spendley (8) and also by Box and Draper (2). An application of the simplex EVOP technique to sales forecasting is given by Montgomery (4). The sequential simplex technique is basically a much simpler technique than factorial EVOP, both conceptually and computationally.

A simplex is an orthogonal first order experimental design, which requires only one more observation than the number of variables under investigation. Thus, if two smoothing parameters are being controlled the resulting simplex is an equilateral triangle and for a three-parameter smoothing model the simplex is a tetrahedron. A simplex design is an experimental design in which the design points are located at the vertices of a simplex. To illustrate the basic approach of the sequential simplex technique, we shall consider the case of two-parameter smoothing. The simplex, as mentioned above is an equilateral triangle with vertices labelled as 1, 2, 3 as shown in Figure 3.

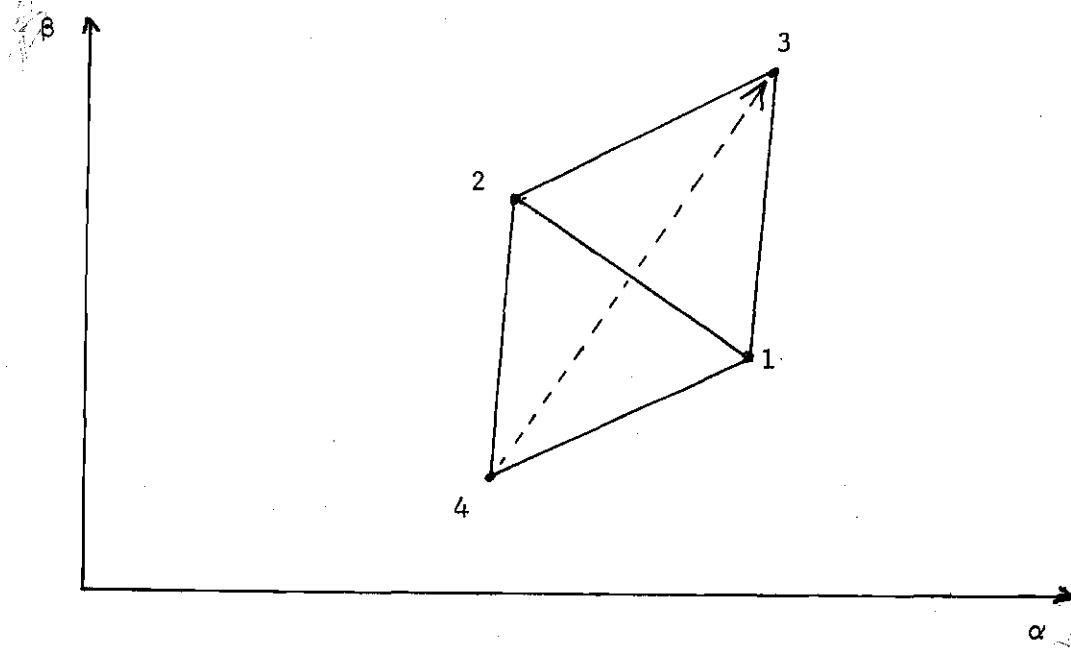


Figure 3. 2 Parameter Simplex Design.

Suppose the value of the forecast error for the three runs, one at each vertex, is found to be greatest at point 3. The simplex procedure will then delete point 3 and add a new point labelled as 4 in Figure 3. This new point is the mirror image of the old point 3. Therefore, point 4 will form an equilateral triangle with the two original points.

The basic design employed is the regular simplex in k dimensions where k is the number of factors or variables under investigation. Relative to a chosen origin X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k , a regular simplex of edge length L is conveniently specified by the $(k+1) \times k$ design matrix D .

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_k \\ x_1 + p_2 & x_2 + q_2 & \dots & x_k + q_2 \\ x_1 + p_L & x_2 + q_L & \dots & x_k + q_L \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_1 + p_L & x_2 + q_L & \dots & x_k + p_L \end{bmatrix}$$

where $p = (1/k \sqrt{2}) [(k-1) + \sqrt{k+1}]$

and $q = (1/k \sqrt{2}) [\sqrt{k+1} - 1]$

The values of p and q given here provide only one of an infinite number of orientations for the simplex design. However, Splendley shows that the procedure is relatively invariant to the design orientation. The rows of D give the k coordinates of the $k+1$ vertices of the simplex. That is, the design points are the rows of D . The j^{th} row of D will be denoted vectorially by \underline{d}_j . The criterion for discarding any existing vector or row of D is the maximum current forecast error squared. This causes the system to move from a region of high forecast error to one of lower forecast error.

To apply this technique to a two-parameter or a three-parameter exponential smoothing model would require the following rules:

1. Let $E(i)$ be the square of the forecast error at the i^{th} design point

$$E(i) = [F(i) - x(i)]^2, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

Let the maximum value of $E(i)$ occur at point \underline{d}_j . Form a new

simplex by deleting \underline{d}_j from D and substituting the new design point \underline{d}_j^* where

$$d_j'^* = 2/k (d_1' + d_2' + \dots + d_j - 1' + d_j + 1' + d_N') - d_j'$$

Calculate the forecast for the next period using the smoothing parameters which are the elements of d_j^* .

2. Apply rule 1 unless a design point has occurred in N successive simplexes without being eliminated. Should this situation arise for the i th design point, discard $E(i)$ and calculate the forecast for the next period using the smoothing parameters in \underline{d}_1 . Then apply rule 1.

3. Should $E(i)$ be the maximum forecast error square in the n^{th} simplex and $E(i)^*$ be the maximum forecast error square in the $n + 1$ st simplex do not return to the n^{th} design. Instead of oscillating, move from the $n + 1$ st design by discarding the second largest forecast error square.

The application of the rules given above results in a shift in the values of the control parameters at each period. This characteristic may tend to make the design too sensitive to random fluctuations in the time series and thereby lead to an unstable, inaccurate forecasting system. On the other hand, the factorial design dictates a parameter change only when a statistically significant need to change is shown. Thus, some filtering of the noise occurs with the factorial design. However, in the presence of a small amount of random noise, there may be little difference in the stabilities and accuracies of the two systems.

Winter's Model

To test the two techniques discussed previously, a fundamental exponential smoothing model due to Winter's (10) is utilized. The model hypothesizes that a time series may be viewed as being composed of permanent and random components. Furthermore, the permanent component can be decomposed generally into level, seasonality and trend factors.

Let the time series $0, 1, 2, \dots, t, t + 1$ be postulated and let x_t be a particular realization of the time series at time t . Assuming the forecast is made for one period ahead only, the equation for the leveling component is

$$S_t(x) = \alpha \left(\frac{x_t}{F_{t-L}} \right) + (1 - \alpha) [S_{t-1}(x) + R_{t-1}(x)]$$

Equation for the seasonal adjustment is

$$F_t = \beta \left(\frac{x_t}{S_t} \right) + (1 - \beta) F_{t-L}$$

and for the trend factor is

$$R_t(x) = \gamma [S_t(x) - S_{t-1}(x)] + (1 - \gamma) R_{t-1}(x)$$

where $S_t(x)$ = estimate of the level component at time t

α = smoothing constant

β = smoothing constant

γ = smoothing constant

L = periodicity of the "season"

F_t = seasonality factor at time t .

$R_t(x)$ = trend at time t .

The smoothing constants α , β and γ have to be positive and less than unity but they are not all necessary equal.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF THE TEST CONDITIONS

To test the performance of the two adaptive control techniques, data were generated artificially and the forecasting methods applied to each series using Monte Carlo simulation. The data were generated on a UNIVAC 1108 computer. Artificial time series were used because it is possible to model specific time series characteristics. If the characteristics of the time series are known, then one may draw general conclusions about the performance of the prediction models on series possessing these characteristics. On the other hand, if the characteristics are not known, then only restricted conclusions can be made about the particular series.

Eight time series were generated, each possessing certain characteristics. Each of these time series has a basic deterministic form, but random variation has been super-imposed to make the series more representative of actual industrial series. Only normally distributed random variables are used for the sake of simplicity. The random variable is generated with a mean of zero and a variance which is either low, fairly low, fairly high or high. The variance is said to be low when the ratio of the variance and the trend component is one-fourth. In the presence of a non-zero constant component, the ratio of the variance and the constant component defines the magnitude of the variance of the time series. Likewise, when the ratio is one-half, three-fourths and one and one-fourth, we say that the variance is fairly

low, fairly high and high, respectively. Each of these time series arbitrarily set as being 200 time units in length.

To show that the random variates generated are normally and independently distributed with a mean equal to zero and a variance equal to a specified constant, a histogram was first constructed to provide a good over-all picture of the data. Then the mean and the variance of the 200 random numbers were computed. A hypothesis was set up to test that the mean of the random variates equals to zero against the alternative that the mean is not equal to zero. Another hypothesis was also set up for testing the hypothesis that the variance equals to the specified constant against an alternative that it is not. These hypotheses were tested using common tests of significance. Then a chi-square goodness of fit test was performed to show that the random variates are indeed normally distributed. Finally to complete the tests, a run test is used to examine the randomness of the data generated, to make sure that there is no trend or correlation in the data.

The remaining portion of this chapter will be devoted to the description of each of the eight time series that were generated. Their characteristics and the series values will be presented. Hereafter, the time series will be referred to by number only.

Description of the Time Series Used

Series 1

This series contains a constant component and a linear trend component with superimposed random noise. The form of the generator equation is

$$X(t) = A + Bt + RV$$

where $X(t)$ is the series value at time t ; A is the constant component; B is the trend per time period; and RV is the random component which is normally and independently distributed (NID). For this series A has a value of zero and B has a value of ten. Figure 4 shows a portion of this time series for $RV \sim \text{NID}(0, 2.5)$.

Series 2

This series is identical to series 1 except there is an impulse at time 100. The constant component and the trend component are identical to those of series 1. Figure 5 shows a portion of this series for $RV \sim \text{NID}(0, 2.5)$.

Series 3

Series 3 is essentially the same as series 1 except that there is a step function in the trend component at time period 100. The form of the generator equation is as follows:

$$X_1(t) = A + Bt + RV \quad \text{for } t < 100$$

$$X_2(t) = A + Dt + RV, \quad \text{for } t \geq 100$$

where $X_1(t)$ and $X_2(t)$ are the time series values for time period 1 to 100 and 100 to 200 respectively. A is the constant component for both time series and it takes on the value of zero. B , and C are the trend component and they take on the value of 10 and 50 respectively. Figure 6 shows a portion of this time series for $RV \sim \text{NID}(0, 2.5)$.

Series 4

Series 4 is very similar to series 3. It is a combination of a step and a ramp function where the time series is constant for time period 1 to 100 at which point there is a step increase. After the increase, the time series follows a linear trend. The form of the generator equation is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} X_1(t) &= A + RV & \text{for } t < 100 \\ X_2(t) &= ct + RV & \text{for } t \geq 100 \end{aligned}$$

where A the constant component is 10 and the trend component C is 100. Figure 7 shows a portion of this time series for $RV \sim \text{NID}(0, 7.5)$.

Series 5

Series 5 represents a series exhibiting strong seasonal or periodic variation. To generate such a time series, the following equation was used

$$X(t) = B \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{L}t\right) + B \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{L}t\right) + RV$$

where $X(t)$ is the series value at time t , B is the amplitude of the sinusoid, L is the period of the sinusoid and RV is the random component. In this series, B has a value of 10 and L has a value of 12. Figure 8 shows a portion of this series for $RV \sim \text{NID}(0, 5.0)$.

Series 6

Series 6 is a twelve-point sine wave with one harmonic. To generate such a time series, the following equation was used.

$$X(t) = B \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} t \right) + B \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} t \right)$$

$$+ C \sin \left(\frac{4\pi}{L} t \right) + C \cos \left(\frac{4\pi}{L} t \right) + RV$$

where $X(t)$ is the series value at time t , B and C are the amplitude and L is the periodicity of the series. In this series, B has a value of 20 and C has a value of 25 and L is 12. Figure 9 shows a portion the time series for $RV \sim NID(0, 12.5)$.

Series 7

Series 7 is composed of trend and seasonal components. The generator equation is as follows:

$$X(t) = Bt + C \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} t \right) + D \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} t \right) + RV$$

where $X(t)$ is the series value at time t . B is the trend component and C and D are the amplitude of the cyclic wave and L is the periodicity of the cycle. B , C and D all takes on a value of 10. Figure 10 shows a portion of this time series for $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

Series 8

This series is one that exhibits high degree of autocorrelation. The form of the generator equation is as follows:

$$X(t) = \sum_{I=0}^{10} RV(t + I)$$

where $X(t)$ is the series value at time t and RV is the random component. Thus, each value of the time series is formed by summing eleven random variables.

For example

$$X(1) = RV(1) + RV(2) + \dots + RV(11)$$

$$X(2) = RV(2) + RV(3) + \dots + RV(12)$$

Figure 11 shows a portion of this time series for $RV \sim NID(0, 12.5)$.

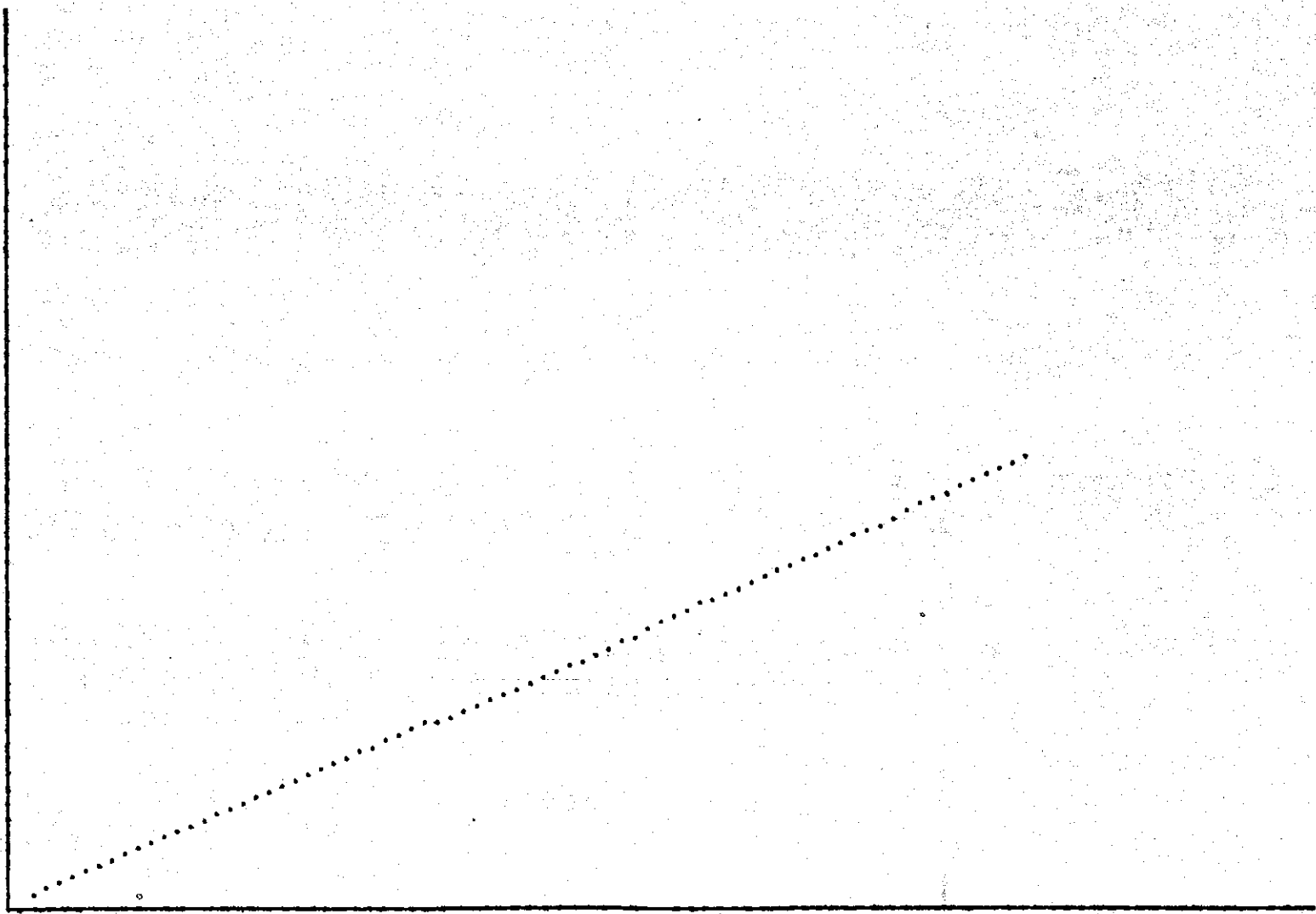


Figure 4. Time Series 1 -- Linear Trend with RV NID (0, 2.5).

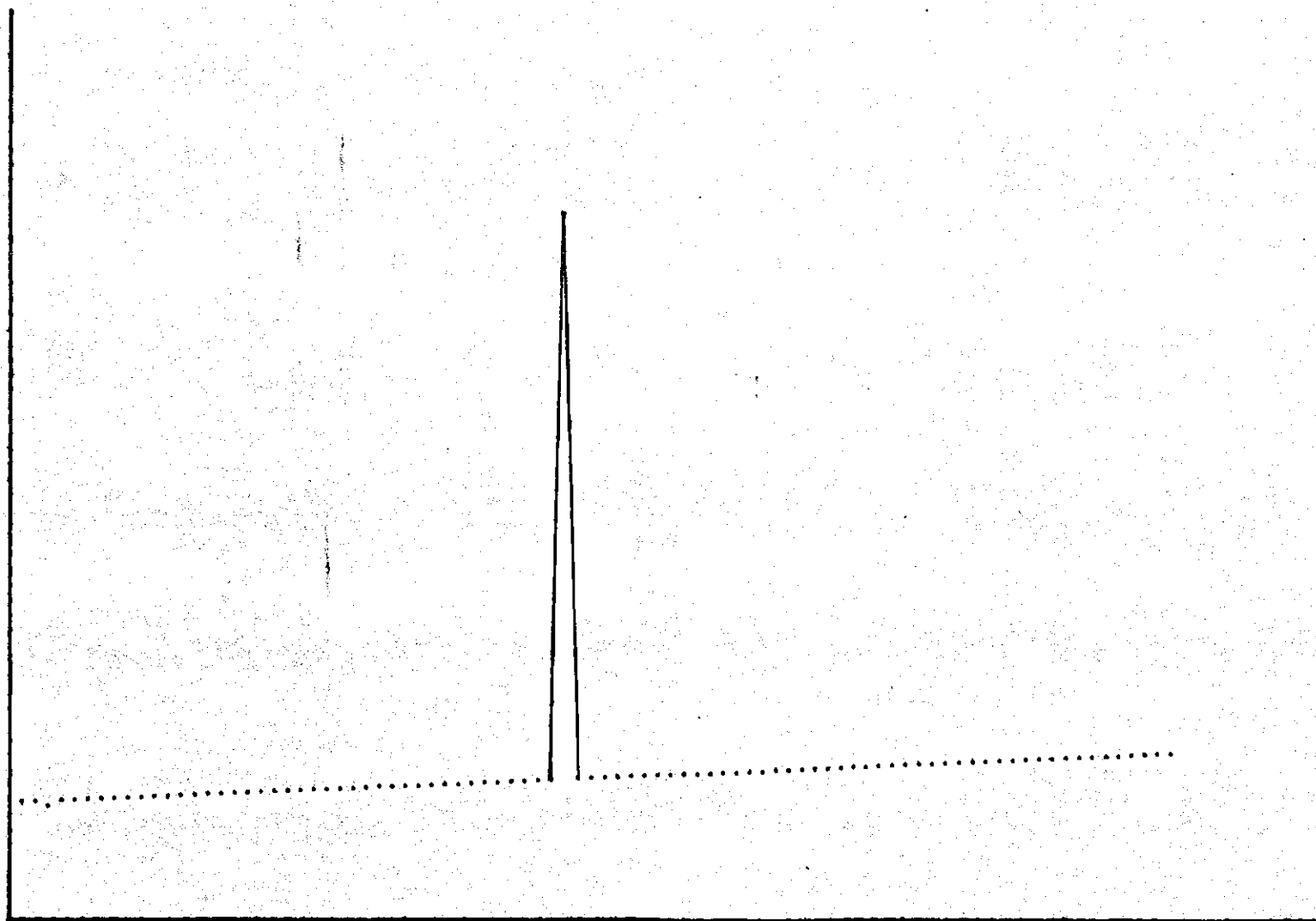


Figure 5. Time Series 2 -- Impulse with RV NID (0, 2.5).

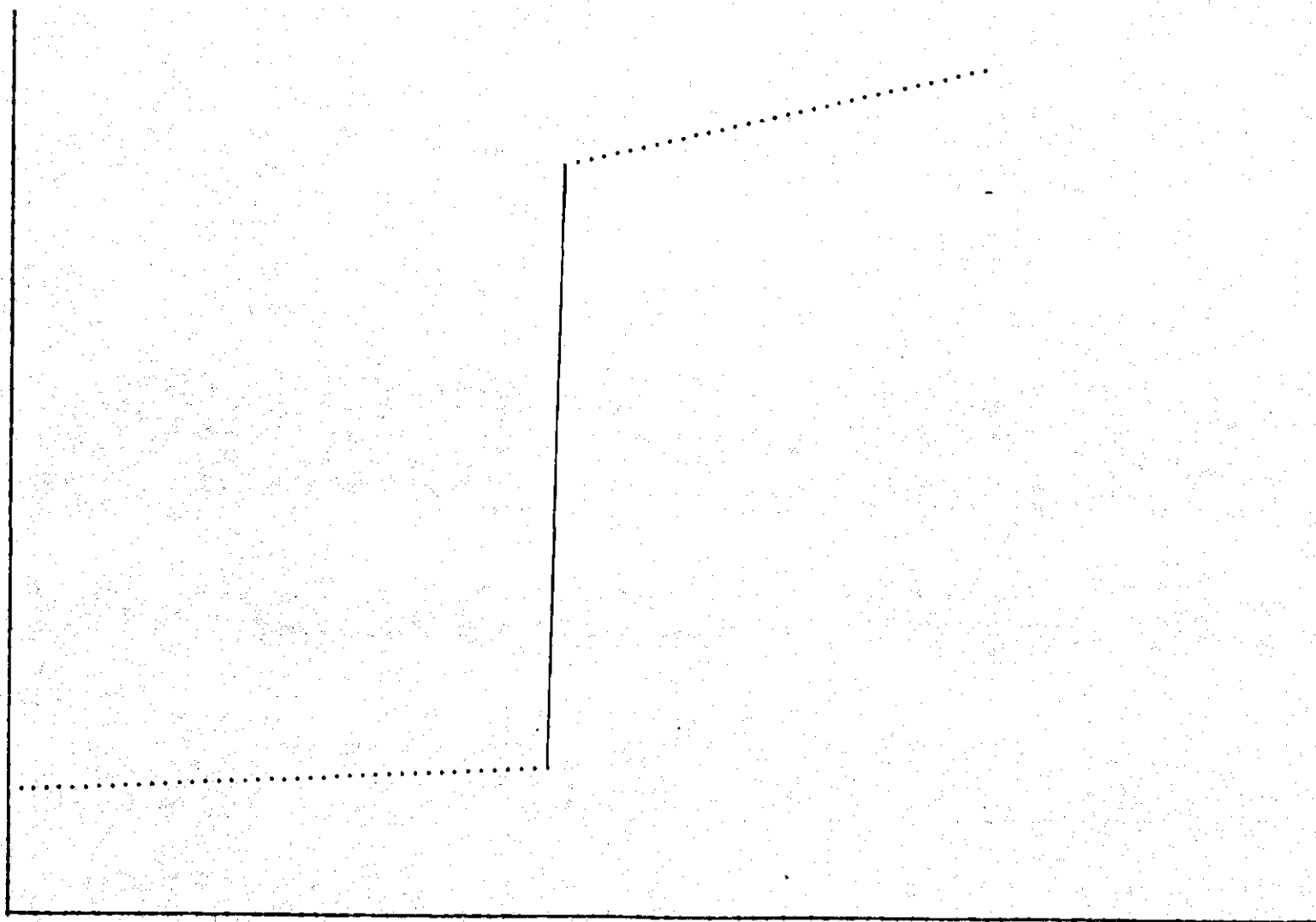


Figure 6. Time Series 3 -- A Combination of a Ramp and a Step with RV NID (0, 2.5).

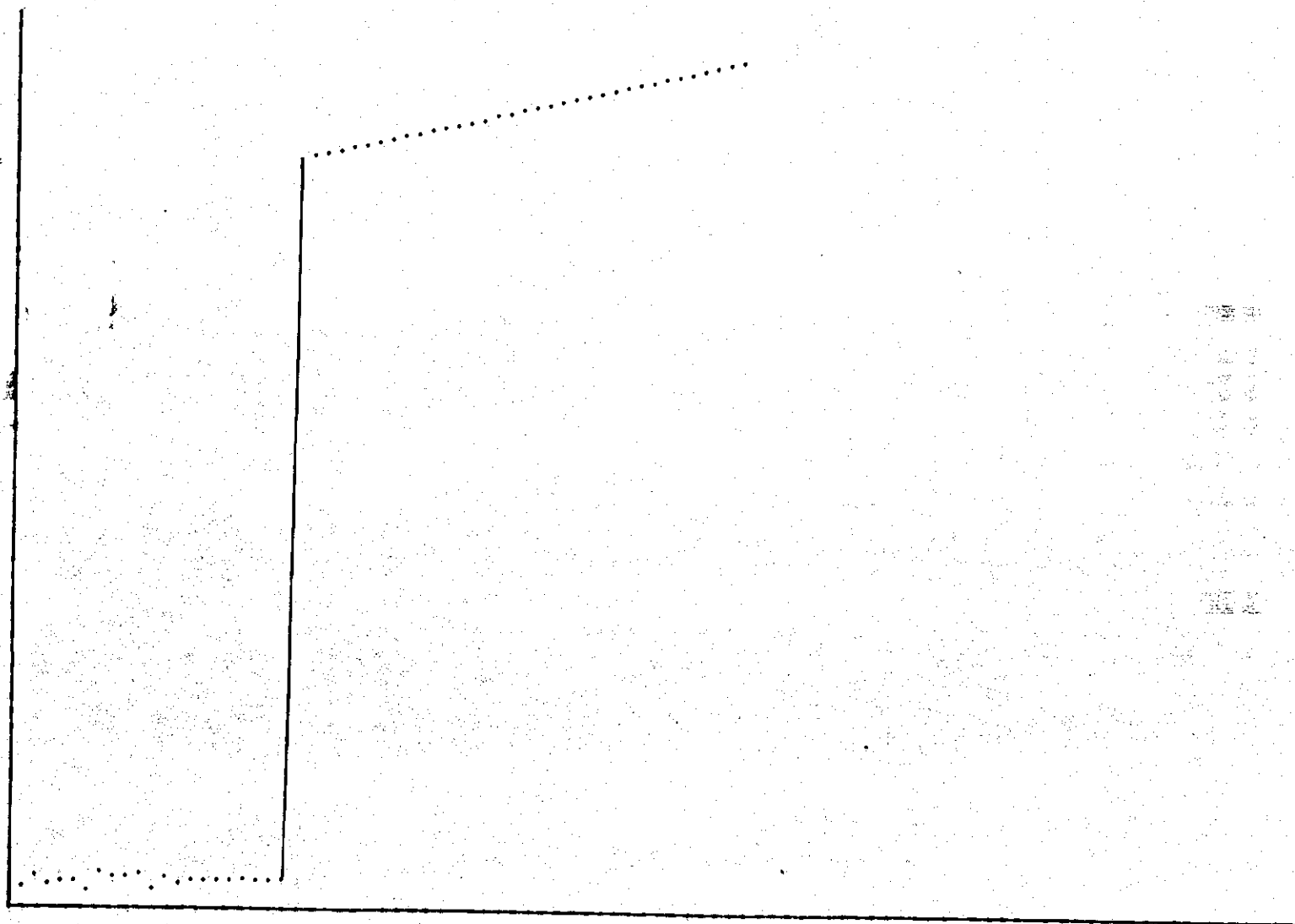


Figure 7. Time Series 4 -- A Combination of a Ramp and a Step with RV NID (0, 7.5).

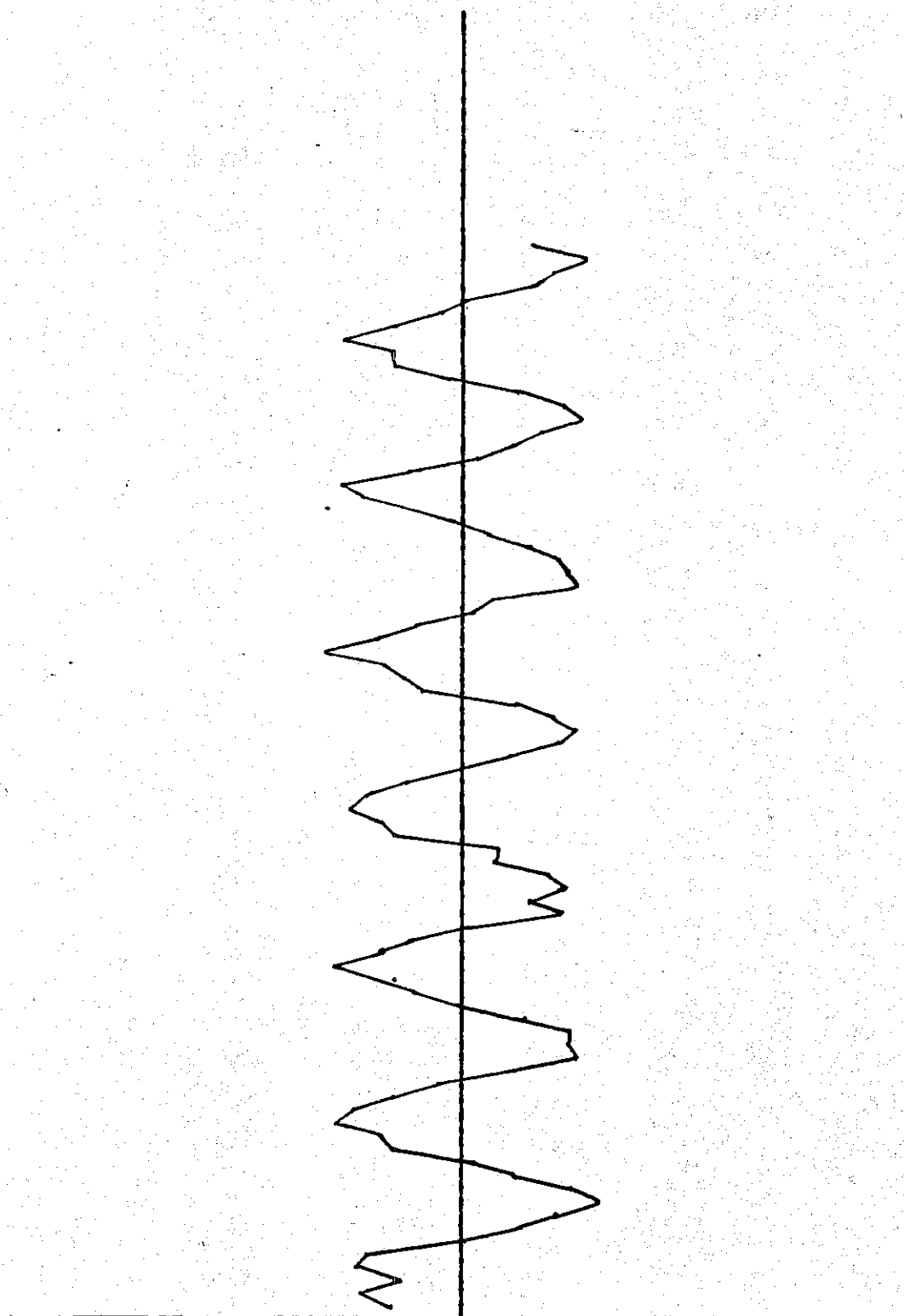


Figure 8. Time Series 5 -- Sinusoid with RV NID (0, 5.0).

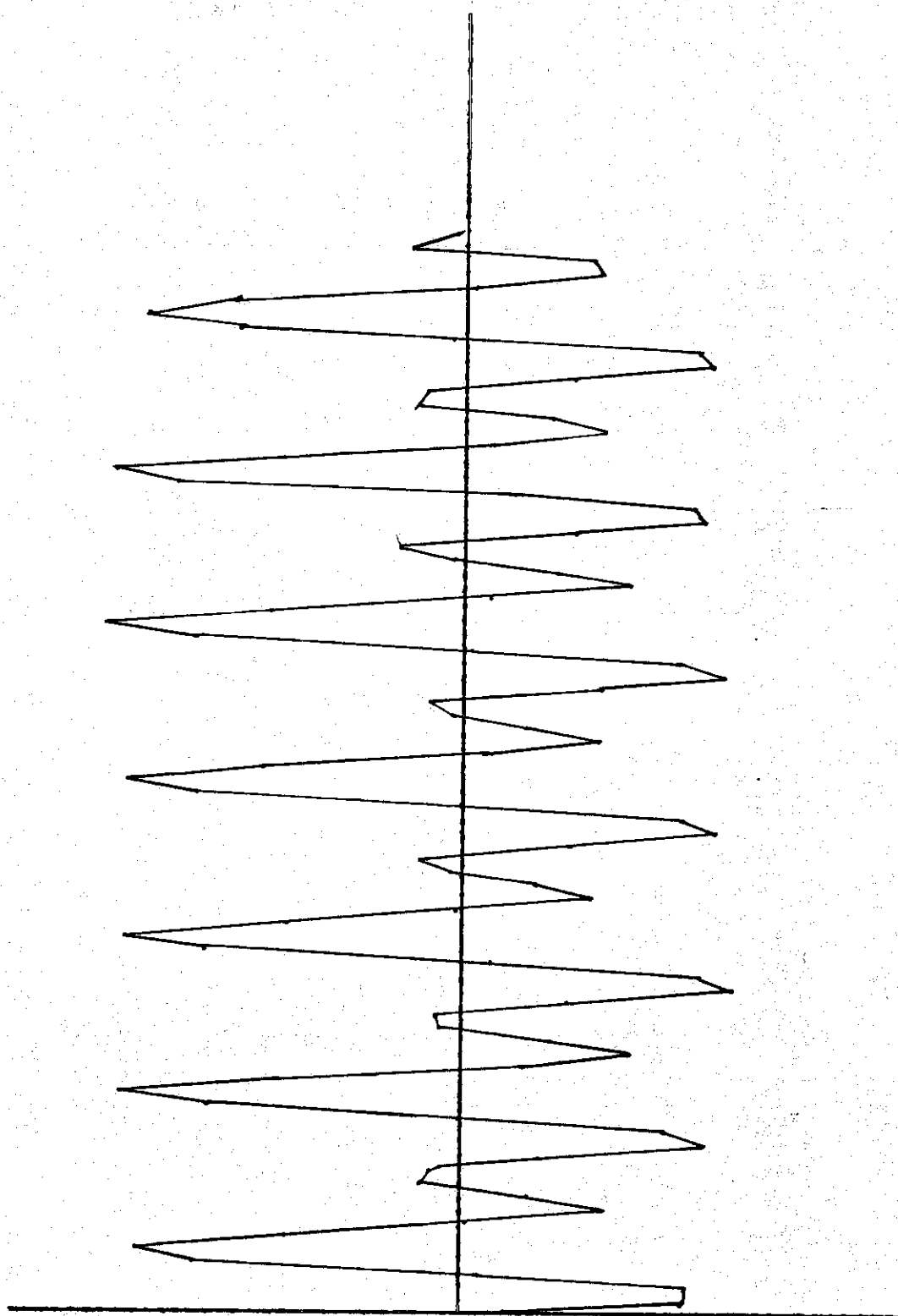


Figure 9. Time Series 6 -- Harmonic with RV NID (0, 12.5).

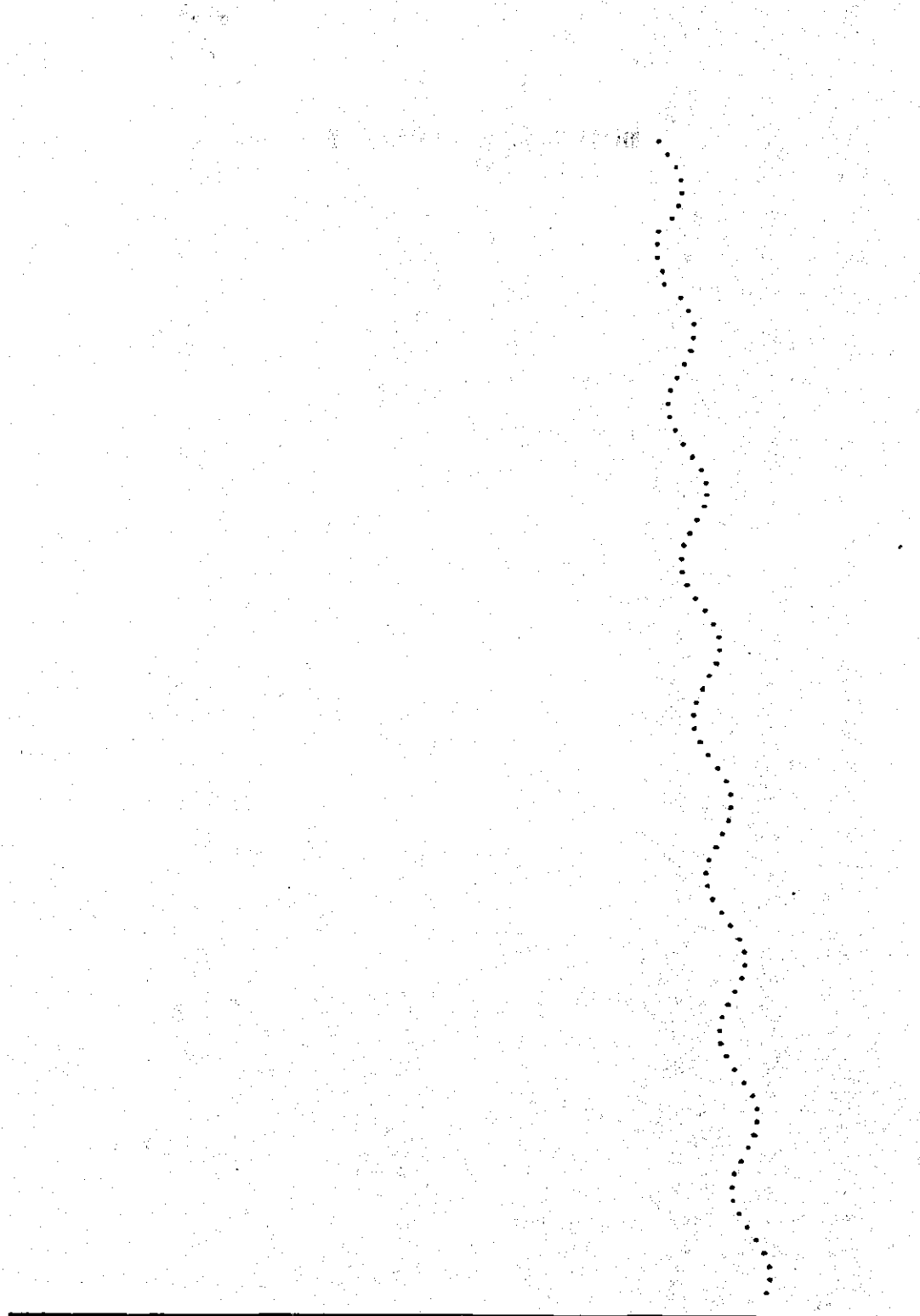


Figure 10. Time Series 7 -- Trend and Seasonal with RV NID (0. 5.0).

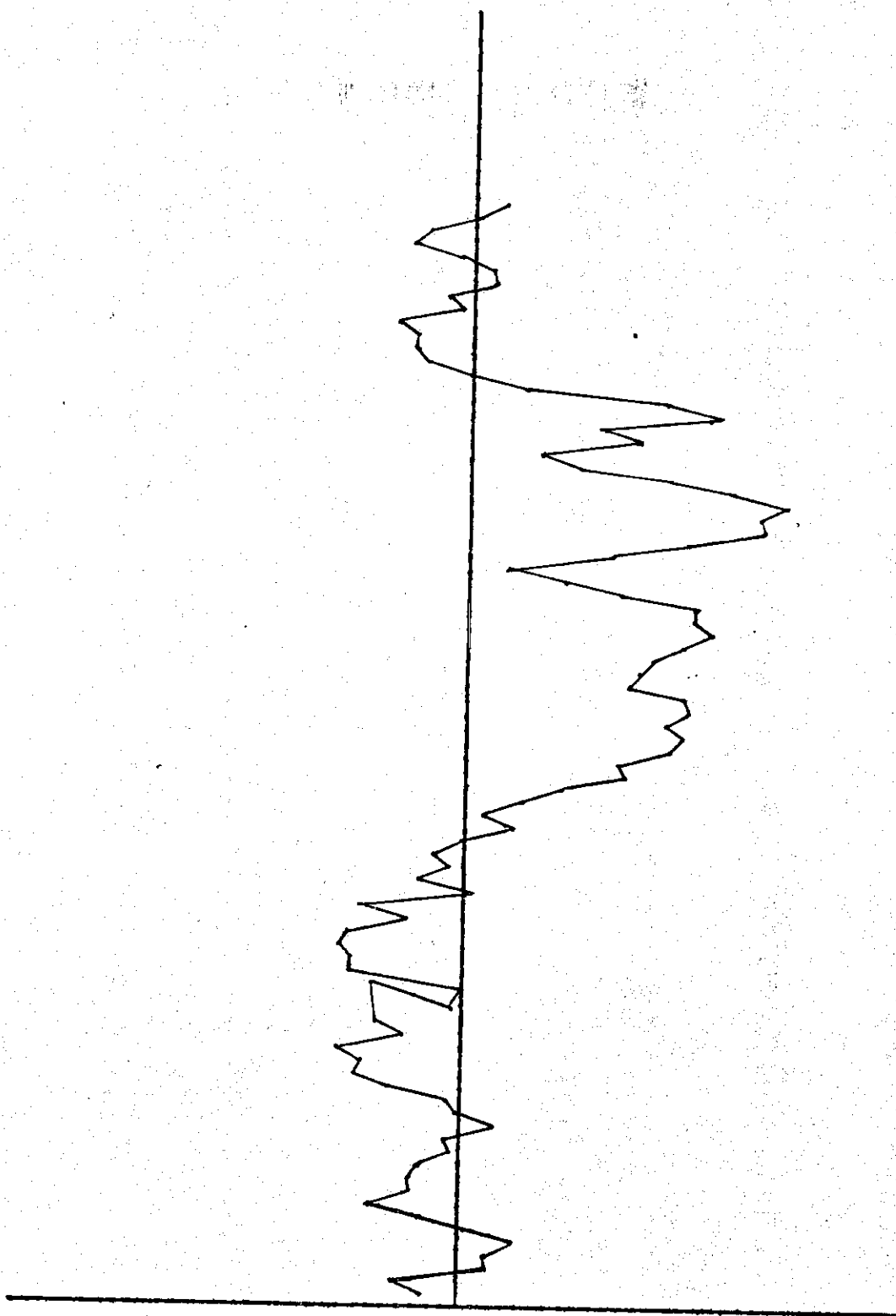


Figure 11. Time Series 8 -- Highly Autocorrelated Series with
RV NID (0, 12.5).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents the results obtained by applying Winter's model with the two EVOP forecasting techniques to the eight time series described in the previous chapter. An investigation of the sensitivity of the models to the initial values of the smoothing constants is presented first. An analysis of the sensitivity of the factorial EVOP to the spread of the experimental design and the sensitivity of the simplex EVOP to the edge length is then presented. Then the overall performance of the two forecasting models for the eight time series, each with four different magnitudes of error variance, is given. Finally, conclusions are given regarding the forecast accuracy and the rate of response of the two models.

Sensitivity to Initial Parameter Values

To investigate the sensitivity of the factorial EVOP to the initial values of the smoothing constants, different combinations of α , β and γ are used in series 1, 5 and 7. Series 1 is a two-parameter trend model, series 5 is a two-parameter seasonal model and series 7 is a three-parameter model which contains both trend and seasonality. Therefore, one series is used to represent each of the three classes of model. Each of these time series is run six times, each time using a different combination of α , β and γ . The random component of all three time series is arbitrarily selected to have a variance

of 5.0. The results of this experiment is shown in Table 1.

Similarly, Table 2 exhibits the effect of initial values of α , β and γ on series 7, the effect of α and β on series 5, and the effect of α and γ on series 1.

Based on the results of Table 1 and Table 2, it is obvious that the simplex EVOP procedure is more sensitive to the initial values of the smoothing constants than the factorial EVOP procedure, and there is no specific pattern of sensitivity.

Sensitivity to Design Size

Another important question of concern is the sensitivity of the simplex procedure to the edge length utilized, and the sensitivity of the factorial procedure to the "spread" or upper and lower parameter limits of the experimental design.

To determine the proper spread for the factorial procedure, runs were made using spreads of 0.01, 0.03, 0.05 and 0.07. Here, spread is defined as the distance from the center point of the design to the face of the cube formed by the eight experimental points. Table 3 represents the crude sum of squares of the forecast errors resulting from these trials. From Table 3, it appears that series 1 and series 5 are not sensitive to the choice of the spread length.

From Table 3, it appears that not all time series are sensitive to the choice of the spread length. For series 1 and series 5 the choice of the spread length does not affect the crude sum of squared errors at all. Whereas, for series 2, 3, 4 and 6, a choice of 0.01 as a "spread value" seems to be the most appropriate. However, for

Table 1. Sum of Squares of Forecast Errors Obtained from Different Initial Smoothing Constants.

<u>Factorial EVOP</u>									
α	β	γ	Series 7	α	β	Series 5	α	γ	Series 1
0.15	0.15	0.15	0.20816×10^8	0.15	0.15	0.32840×10^4	0.15	0.15	0.16046×10^8
0.05	0.05	0.05	0.21293×10^8	0.05	0.05	0.19420×10^4	0.05	0.05	0.16046×10^8
0.15	0.10	0.10	0.20851×10^8	0.15	0.10	0.17217×10^4	0.15	0.10	0.16046×10^8
0.15	0.10	0.15	0.20864×10^8	0.15	0.10	0.17217×10^4	0.15	0.15	0.16042×10^8
0.20	0.10	0.10	0.21066×10^8	0.20	0.10	0.22869×10^4	0.20	0.10	0.16042×10^8
0.20	0.15	0.10	0.20929×10^8	0.20	0.15	0.19607×10^4	0.20	0.10	0.16043×10^8

Table 2. Sum of Squares of Forecast Errors Obtained from Different Initial Smoothing Constants.

<u>Simplex EVOP</u>									
α	β	γ	Series 7	α	β	Series 5	α	γ	Series 1
0.15	0.15	0.15	0.23104×10^6	.05	.05	0.10067×10^5	0.5	0.05	0.70119×10^5
0.05	0.05	0.05	0.56415×10^6	0.15	0.10	0.11675×10^7	0.15	0.10	*
0.15	0.10	0.10	0.36602×10^6	0.15	0.05	0.55444×10^8	0.15	0.05	0.55416×10^5
0.15	0.10	0.15	0.44029×10^6	0.20	0.10	0.63194×10^7	0.20	0.10	-
0.20	0.10	0.10	0.51913×10^6						
0.20	0.15	0.10	0.27436×10^6						

* Sum of Squares of Forecast Errors cannot be obtained because the System is Cycling Around a Single Point.

series 7 and 8 a choice of 0.05 as the "spread value" is appropriate.

A similar approach is used to determine the proper edge length for the simplex procedure. Again, runs using the edge length of 0.01, 0.03, 0.05 and 0.07 were made and Table 4 represents the crude sum of squared errors resulting from these trials. From Table 4, it appears that all time series are sensitive to the edge length. For series 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6, an edge length of 0.01 is the most appropriate. For series 5, 7 and 8 a larger value of the edge length is more appropriate.

These values of edge length and spread were chosen arbitrarily for testing and are by no means optimal. They were chosen purely to give some relative indication of the sensitivity of the models to these variables. In actual practice, the best values of edge length or spread can be determined either by simulation and analysis of historical data or by trial and error experimentation in real time. Clearly the former method of setting these values would be the most desirable in an operating industrial prediction and control system.

Comparison of the Factorial and Simplex EVOP Procedures

Table 5 through 8 show the crude sums of squares of the forecast errors for all eight time series, with four different magnitudes of error variance, using both the factorial and the simplex EVOP techniques. The edge length and the spread for all runs were both chosen to be 0.05, which seems to work reasonably well for both methods. Also, both Roberts and Reed as well as Montgomery have suggested this value,

Table 3. Crude Sum of Squared Errors for the Eight Time Series
Using Various Spread Values of the Factorial Design.

Time Series	Spread Values			
	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.07
1	0.20961×10^8	0.20842×10^8	0.20870×10^8	0.21172×10^8
2	0.26973×10^5	0.40215×10^5	0.49115×10^5	0.49277×10^5
3	0.28280×10^5	0.30866×10^5	0.31166×10^5	0.10994×10^6
4	0.65702×10^4	0.52514×10^6	0.64770×10^6	0.53834×10^7
5	0.16061×10^8	0.16054×10^8	0.16051×10^8	0.16051×10^8
6	0.13721×10^9	0.18435×10^9	0.22337×10^9	0.22142×10^9
7	0.24161×10^9	0.13778×10^9	0.12580×10^9	0.12582×10^9
8	0.29595×10^9	0.16723×10^9	0.17080×10^8	0.13885×10^9

Table 4. Crude Sum of Squared Errors for the Eight Time Series
Using Various Edge Lengths of the Simplex Design.

Time Series	Edge Lengths			
	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.07
1	0.74698×10^6	0.96214×10^6	0.10509×10^7	0.71795×10^6
2	0.30221×10^5	0.61824×10^5	0.61212×10^5	0.67478×10^5
3	0.17372×10^5	0.22372×10^5	0.84950×10^7	0.12191×10^6
4	0.35501×10^4	0.19653×10^6	0.17618×10^8	0.32816×10^8
5	0.75523×10^5	Δ	0.58799×10^5	0.58227×10^5
6	0.11524×10^9	0.12876×10^9	0.17407×10^9	0.17455×10^9
7	0.51179×10^9	0.26339×10^9	0.51717×10^9	0.39536×10^9
8	0.43205×10^8	0.26454×10^8	0.11591×10^8	0.23889×10^8

Δ Note: The crude sum of squared forecast errors cannot be obtained because the system is cycling around a single point.

and it seems to be used in practice. The initial values of α , β , γ used were all arbitrarily chosen to be 0.1.

From Tables 5 through 8, we see that the factorial EVOP is better for certain time series, while the simplex EVOP is better for other time series. However, to further illustrate from a graphical point of view the performance of these two forecasting procedures, an inspection and analysis of Figures 12 through 21 was made. These graphs show portion of both the time series values and the predicated values using the two different procedures.

Time series 1, whose random variable is distributed $N(0, 5.0)$, is shown in Figure 12 along with the results of the two prediction procedures. Series 1 exhibits a linear trend. According to the result in Table 6, the simplex procedure performs better than the factorial EVOP procedure. Most of the difference in the sum of square of forecast error between the two procedures can be accounted for by their performances at the first sixteen time periods. As shown in Figure 2, the factorial EVOP procedure fluctuates up and down resulting in large forecast error at the initial stage, but it finally stabilizes itself and follows the trend equally well as the simplex after the sixteen time periods have gone by.

Time series 2 is time series 1 with an impulse. The series selected for illustration also has a random variable distributed $N(0, 5.0)$. Figure 13 shows the response of the two forecasting procedures to an impulse in the time series. As expected, the performances of both procedures were the same at the initial stages,

before the impulse. At the point of impulse, the rate of response to the signal is much better in the case of factorial EVOP procedure. The effect of the impulse lasted for only a short time, and the factorial EVOP forecasting system stabilized quickly. However, the impulse effect lasted for a long time in the simplex EVOP forecasting system and the system stabilized itself gradually.

Time series 3 contains a step increase. For responses to a step increase, the results are quite different. They are indicated in Figure 14. The simplex EVOP seemed to "overshoot" and oscillate badly. The factorial EVOP appeared to perform much better than the simplex in the case of a step function.

Time series 4 also contains a step increase. The only difference between series 3 and 4 is that the time series before the signal input is a trend for series 3 while it is a constant for series 4. After the signal input, both time series takes on a trend. The responses to series 4 are very different than those of series 3. Here, the factorial EVOP seemed to "undershoot" first and then "overshoot" and very slowly oscillates to the new level and follows the trend. The simplex EVOP seemed to "overshoot" first but it reached the new level quickly without large error fluctuations. The results are indicated in Figure 15. The reason for this may be explained simply. In the simplex procedure, the control parameters adapt themselves each period to changes in the time series. Thus, it is faster for the simplex procedure to change its parameter and adapt to a new level when a drastic change from a constant level to that of a trend is encountered.

However, in the factorial EVOP procedure, when there is a change in level after the step impulse, several periods are then required to re-evaluate the range estimate of the standard deviation so that an upward shift can occur in order to adapt to the new trend.

Series 5 contains a basic sinusoid or periodic pattern and clearly demonstrated the superiority of factorial EVOP procedure. In Figure 16, it can be seen that the simplex EVOP procedure resulted in very large prediction errors because it is out of phase with the signal. The factorial EVOP procedure, with its statistical control limits, allows parameter modifications which result in a predicted series which follows closely the periodic behavior of the series.

Series 6 is a sine wave with one harmonic. In Figure 17 this harmonic series has a random error component which is distributed $N(0, 2.5)$ superimposed on it. It can be seen that the simplex EVOP procedure performed slightly better than the factorial EVOP. Nevertheless, when the random variable is distributed $N(0, 12.5)$, that is when the system is noisy, a reversal occurred. The factorial EVOP procedure performed better when the variance of the random component is high, and the result is as shown in Figure 18. It seems that when the system is noisy, the continuous parameter changes inherent in the simplex EVOP procedure introduce additional error in series exhibiting periodic behavior.

Series 7 contains both trend and periodic components. As shown in Figure 19, the simplex EVOP procedure performs better than the factorial EVOP procedure. This is another case which confirms the

superiority of simplex EVOP in the presence of a trend component.

Series 8, which is very highly auto-correlated, is shown in Figure 20 along with the results of the two prediction procedures. As expected, the factorial EVOP procedure performs better than the simplex EVOP since the high auto-correlation structure produces a time series that appears to be cyclic.

In conclusion, we can state that simplex EVOP procedure yields more accurate results in the presence of a trend component! On the other hand, for time series that shows periodic behavior, the factorial EVOP procedure proved significantly better than the simplex EVOP procedure. Finally, it can also be generally concluded that the factorial EVOP procedure gives better responses to standard signal inputs such as the impulse and the step functions. However, when there is a drastic change in the level of the time series before and after the signal input, the simplex EVOP procedure will give a better rate of response.

Table 5. Crude Sum of Squared Errors for the Eight Time Series
Having RV NID (0, 2.5).

Time Series	Simplex EVOP	Factorial EVOP
1	0.59184×10^5	0.62400×10^7
2	0.15445×10^9	0.22742×10^9
3	0.36772×10^9	0.13373×10^9
4	0.11589×10^8	0.17082×10^8
5	0.35174×10^6	0.15630×10^5
6	0.94746×10^4	0.13763×10^5
7	0.38766×10^6	0.19011×10^8
8	0.19711×10^8	0.63847×10^5

Table 6. Crude Sum of Squared Errors for the Eight Time Series
Having RV NID (0, 5.0).

Time Series	Simplex EVOP	Factorial EVOP
1	0.58799×10^5	0.16051×10^8
2	0.17470×10^9	0.22337×10^9
3	0.51717×10^9	0.12580×10^9
4	0.11591×10^8	0.17086×10^8
5	0.84950×10^7	0.31166×10^5
6	0.61212×10^5	0.49115×10^5
7	0.10509×10^7	0.20870×10^8
8	0.17618×10^8	0.64770×10^6

Table 7. Crude Sum of Squared Errors for the Eight Time Series
Having RV NID (0, 7.5).

Time Series	Simplex EVOP	Factorial EVOP
1	0.58987×10^5	0.62509×10^7
2	0.11534×10^9	0.21533×10^9
3	0.41945×10^9	0.14291×10^9
4	0.11594×10^8	0.19553×10^8
5	0.17583×10^6	0.46579×10^4
6	0.39125×10^8	0.66577×10^8
7	0.52622×10^6	0.19022×10^8
8	0.25583×10^9	0.13605×10^{11}

Table 8. Crude Sum of Squared Errors for the Eight Time Series
Having RV NID (0, 12.5).

Time Series	Simplex EVOP	Factorial EVOP
1	0.58612×10^5	0.12300×10^8
2	0.14142×10^9	0.20198×10^9
3	0.30577×10^9	0.13444×10^9
4	0.11598×10^8	0.17093×10^8
5	0.12370×10^7	0.68923×10^4
6	0.35904×10^8	0.17658×10^6
7	0.13488×10^6	0.12397×10^8
8	0.41784×10^8	0.30587×10^5

CHAPTER V

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Two areas of further research are naturally suggested by the work done in this study. The first area involves the extension of the simplex EVOP procedure, while the second area involves a further detailed investigation of the effects of the basic nature of the time series to evolutionary operation procedures.

The first area of further research involves making the simplex more flexible in its use. In this thesis, the optimum operating conditions is obtained by evaluating the output from a system at a set of points forming a regular simplex in a factor space, and continually forming new simplexes by reflecting one point in the hyperplane of the remaining points. It is assumed that the relative steps to be made in varying the factors are known, and thus makes their strategy rather rigid for general use. Nelder and Mead (5) have developed a method of making the simplex adaptive to the local shape of the response surface. Comparison of this modified simplex method can be made with the regular simplex to see if it improves the forecast accuracy, and especially the rate of response to standard signals.

The second area of research is an extension of the work done for this thesis. From this study, it was shown that the simplex EVOP procedure performs well the trend model and the factorial EVOP performs well the seasonal model. It would be of great interest to investigate

the effect of the simplex EVOP procedure on time series with varying magnitudes of the trend component. Similarly, it is possible to determine the effect of the factorial EVOP procedure on time series with varying magnitudes of the amplitude and the periodicity of the cycle. These investigations would be of value on further determining the characteristics of the two EVOP forecasting techniques.

APPENDIX

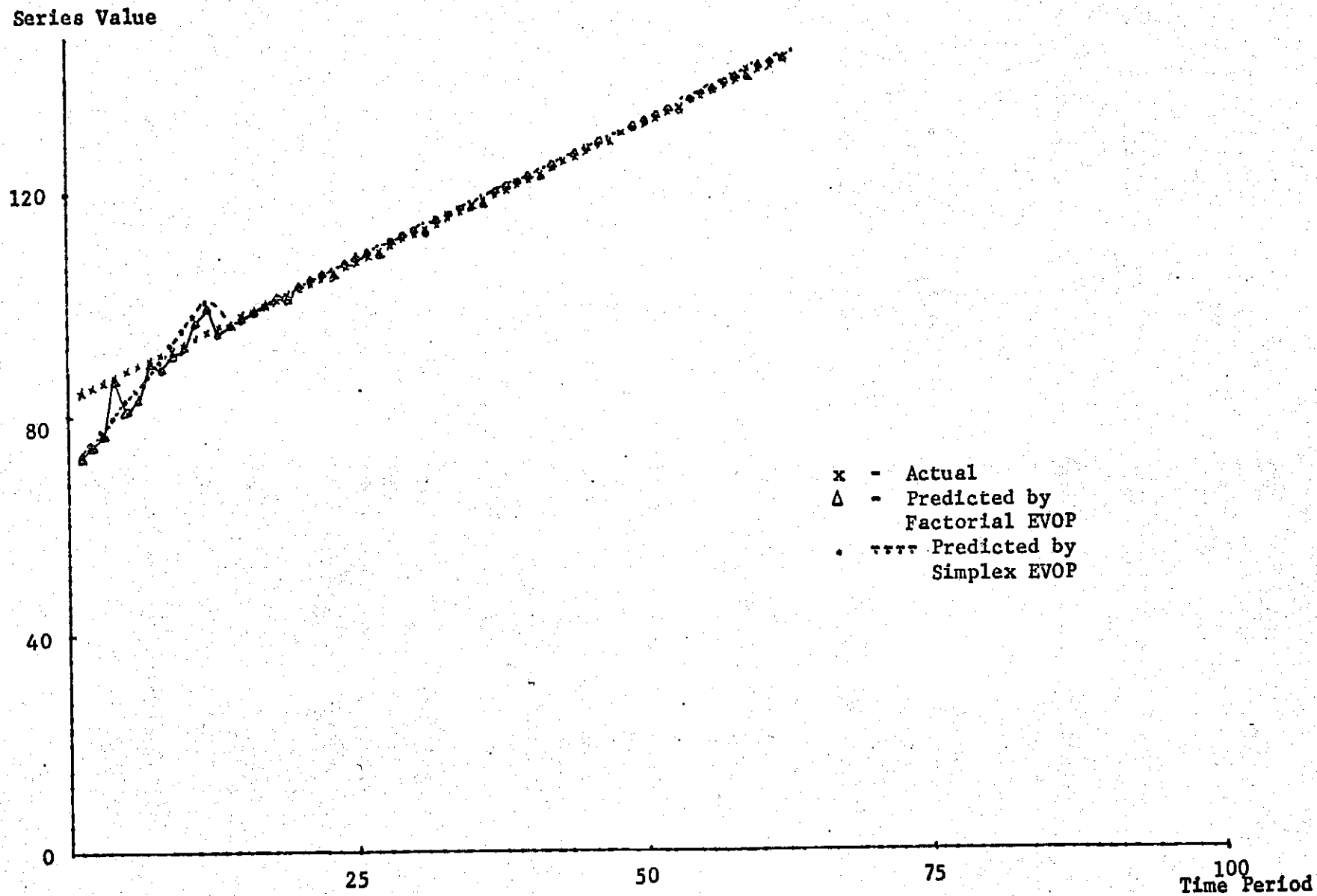


Figure 12. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 1 with $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

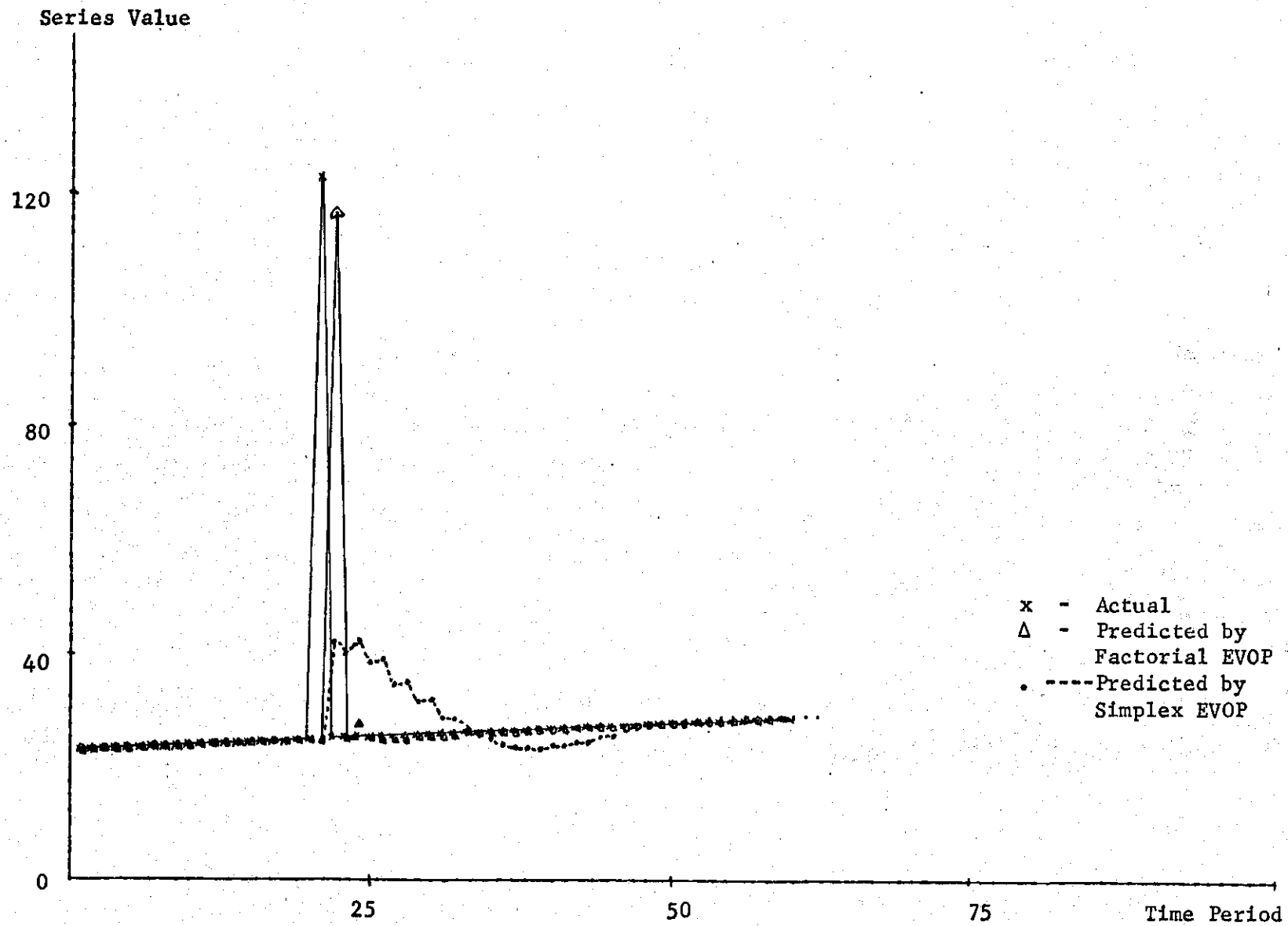


Figure 13. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 2 with RV \sim NID (0, 5.0).

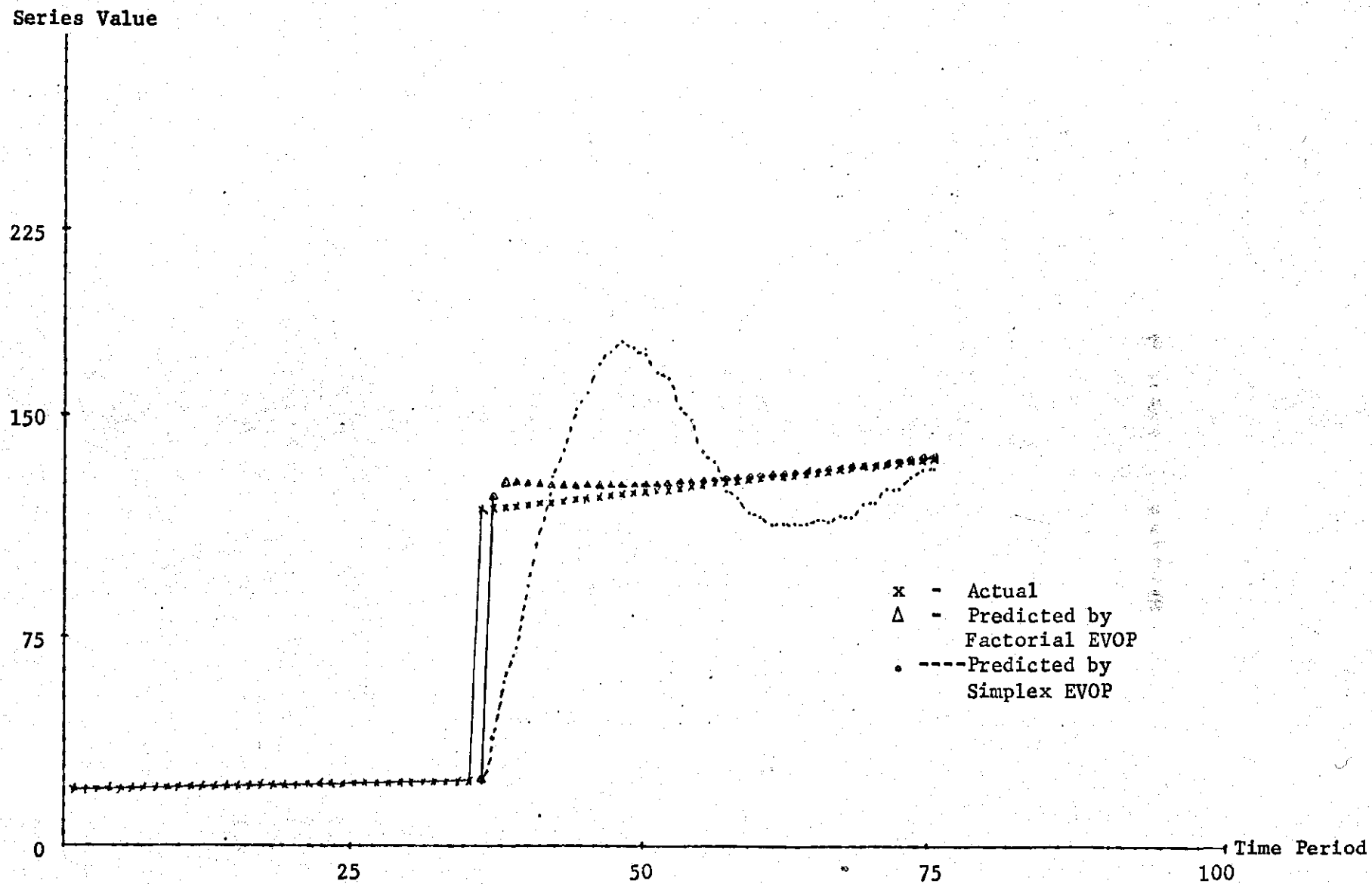


Figure 14. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 3 with $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

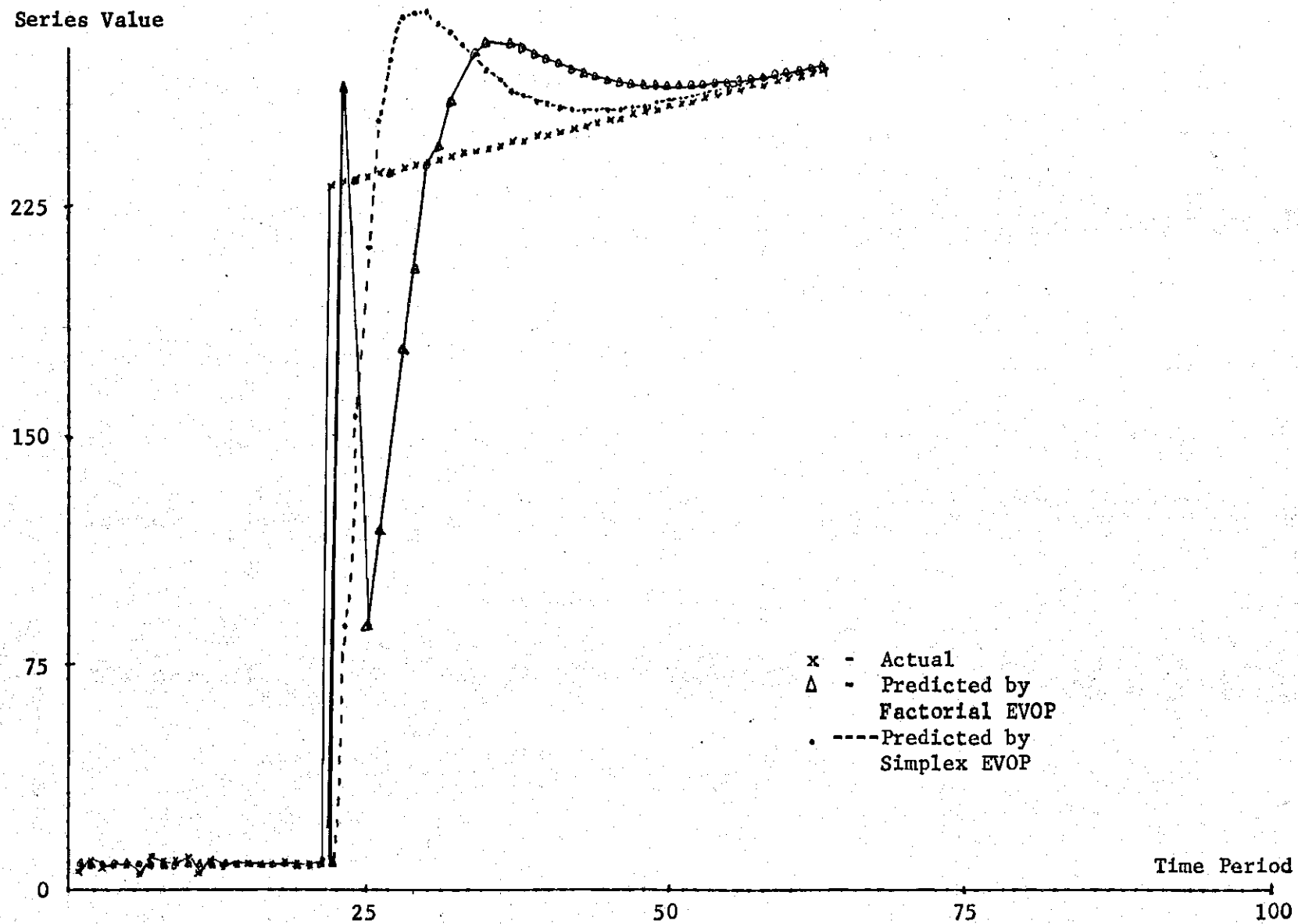


Figure 15. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 4 with $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

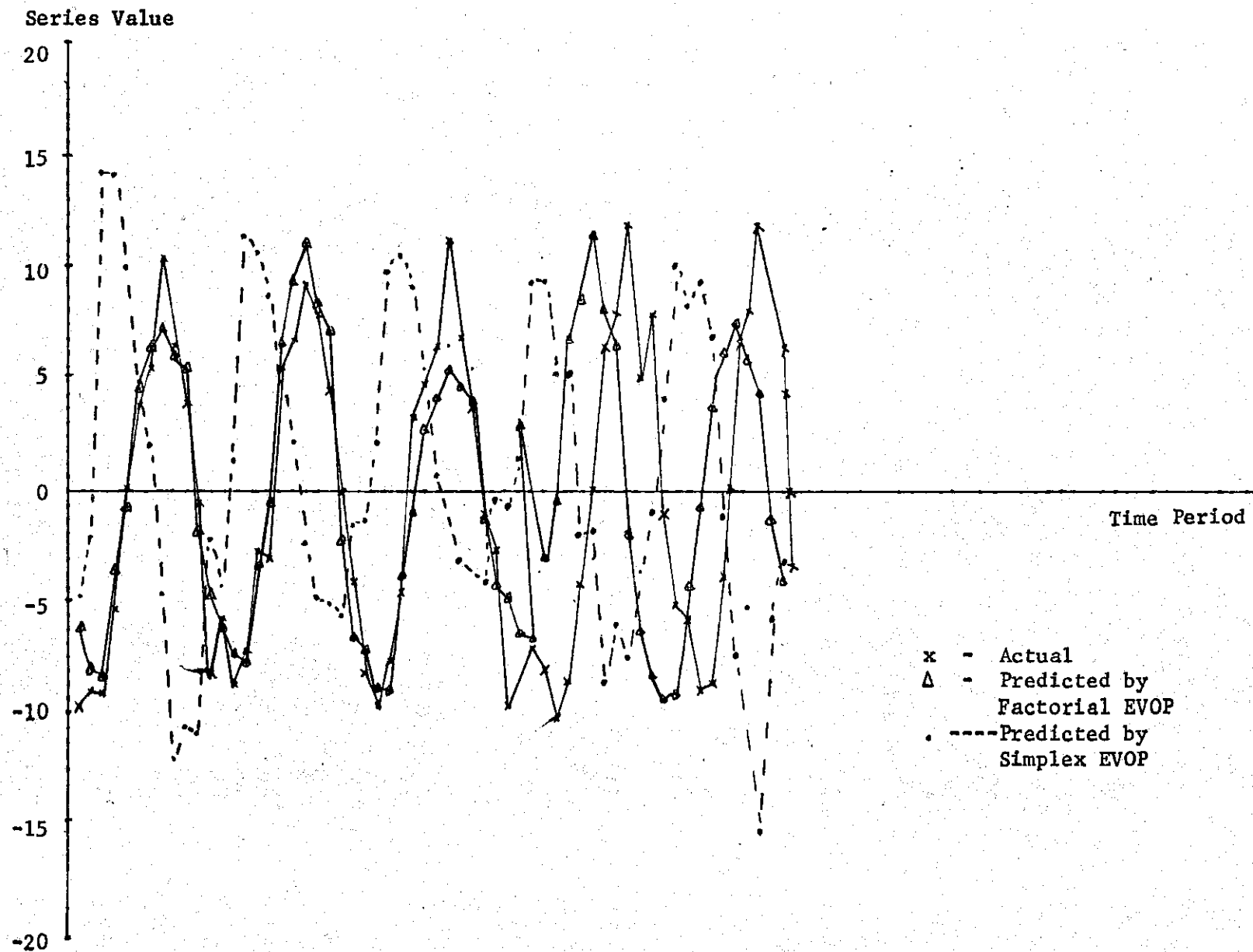


Figure 16. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 5 with $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

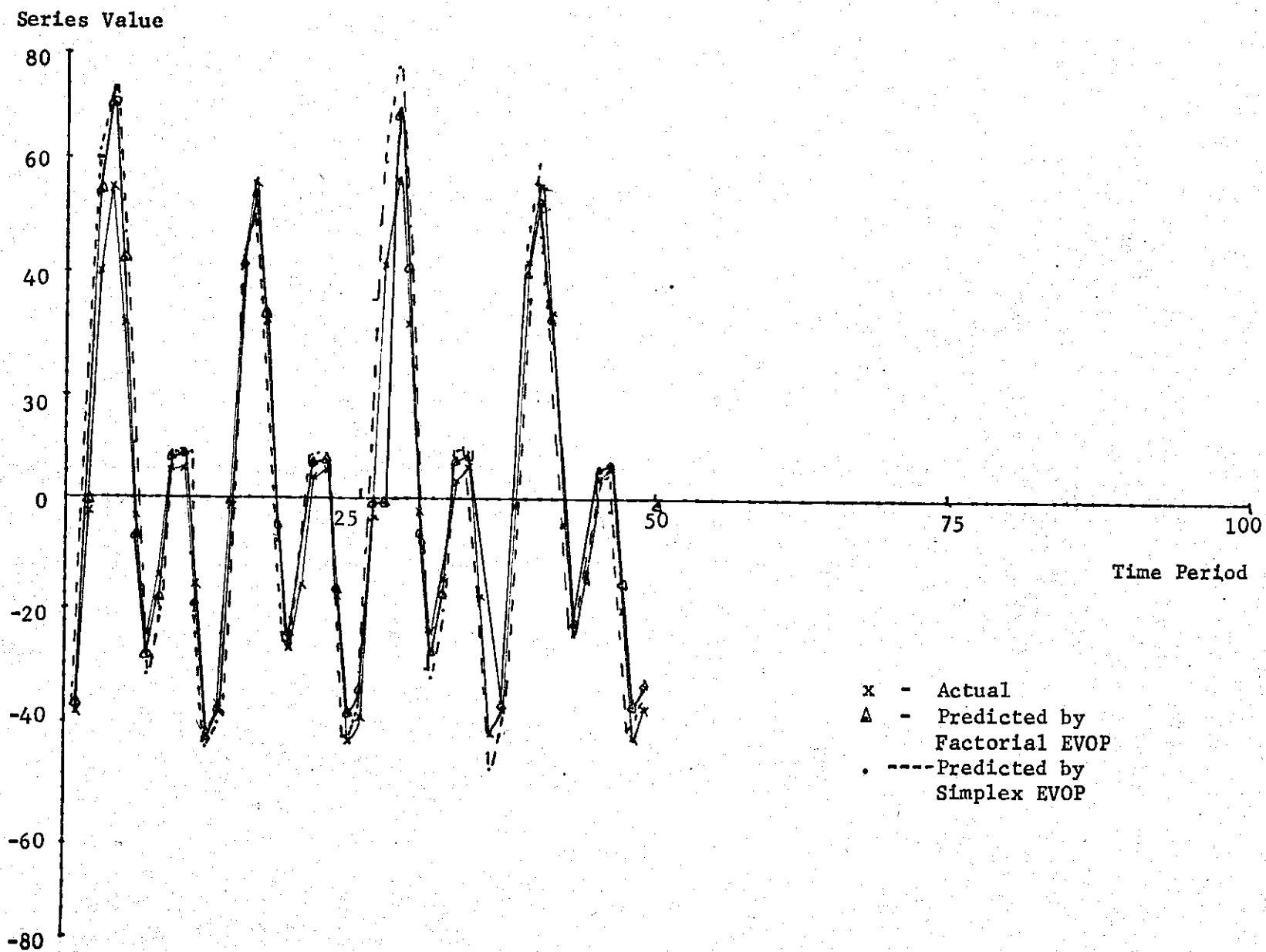


Figure 17. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 6 with $RV \sim NID(0, 2.5)$.

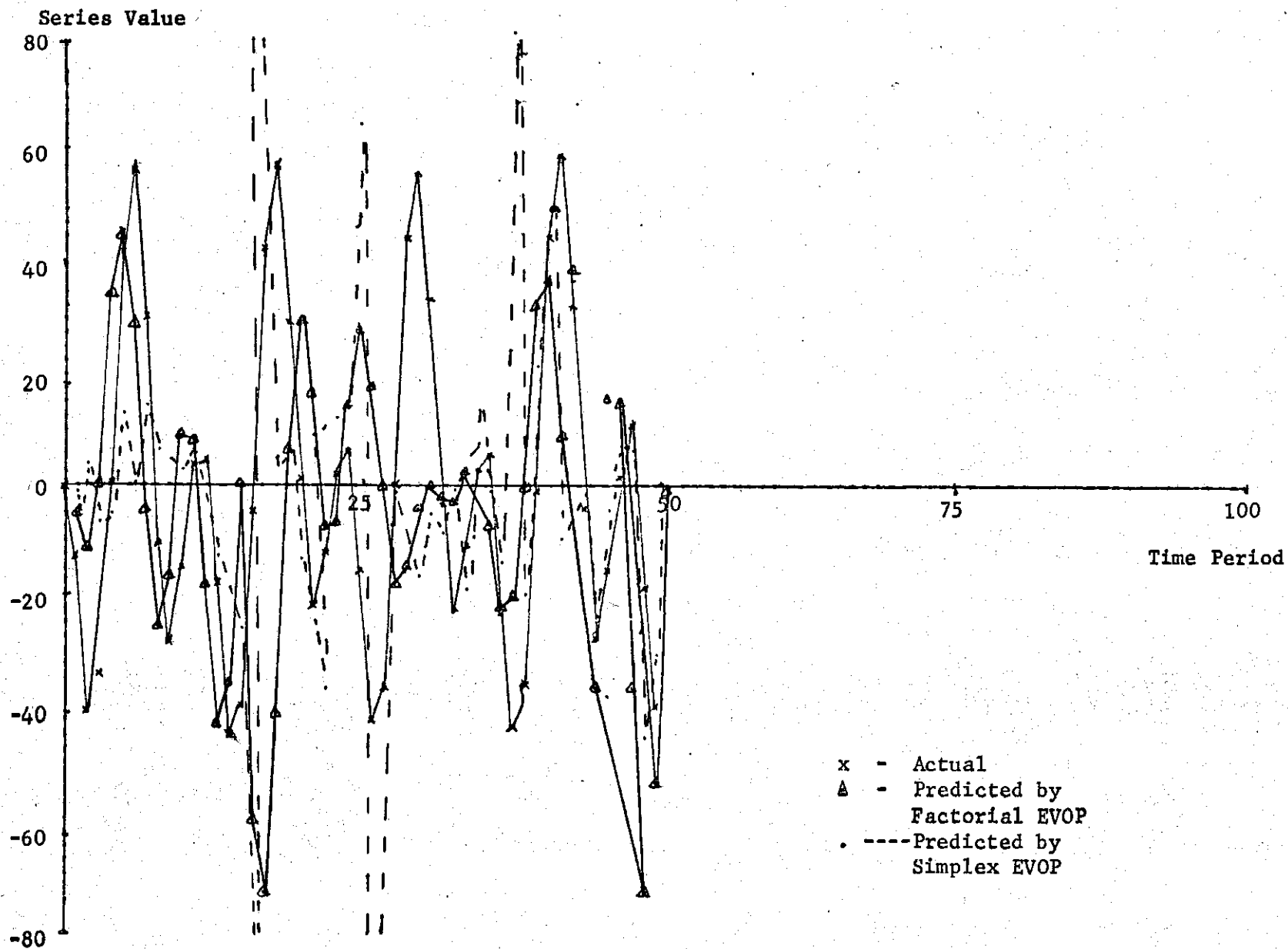


Figure 18. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 6 with $RW \sim NID(0, 12.5)$.

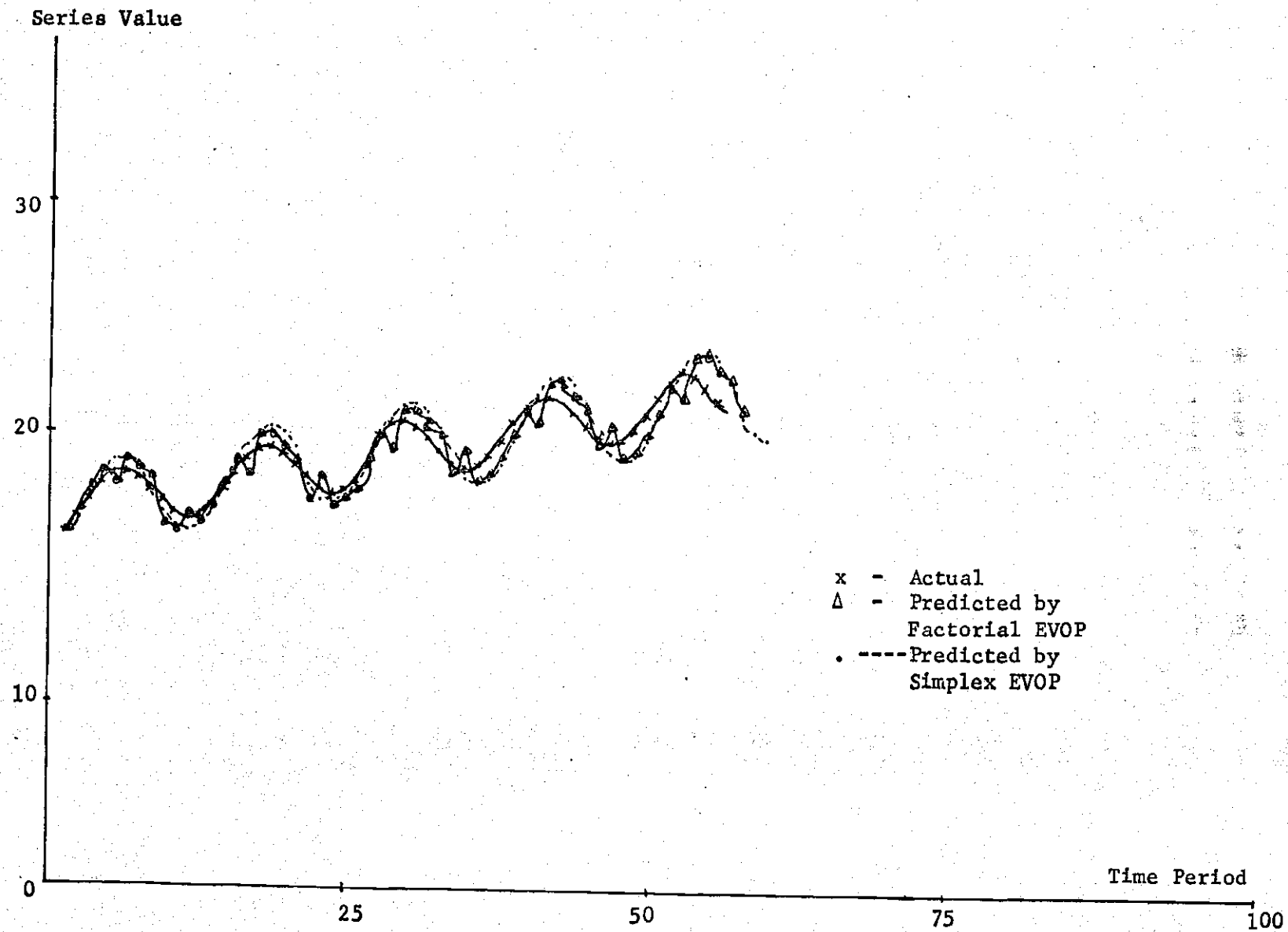


Figure 19. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 7 with $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

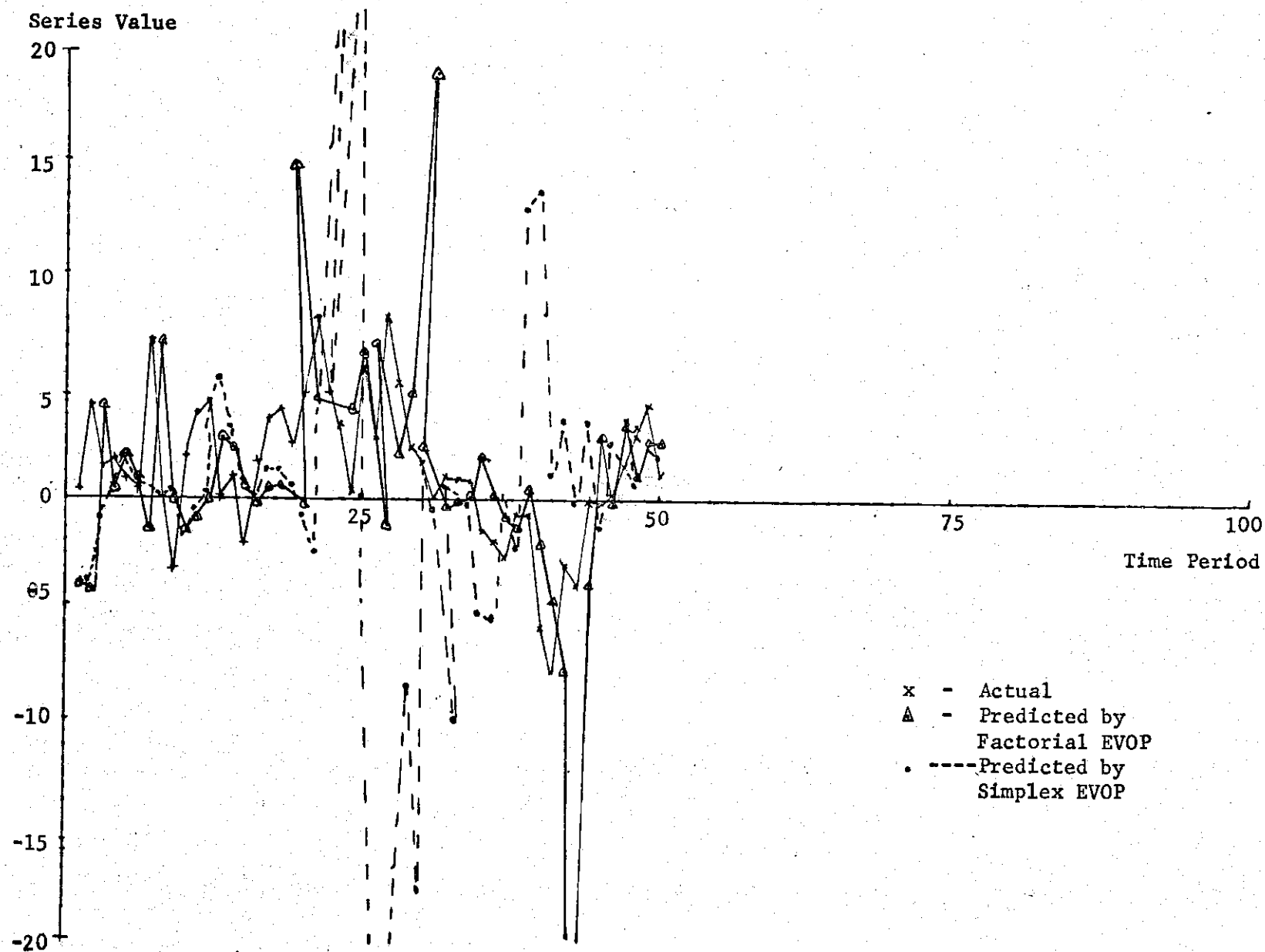


Figure 20. Performance of Factorial EVOP and Simplex EVOP on Series 8 with $RV \sim NID(0, 5.0)$.

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 0004 BLOCKB 000033
 0005 BLOCKC 013625
 0006 BLOCKF 000001

EXTERNAL REFERENCES (BLOCK, NAME)

0007 FACTOR
 0010 DFCIDE
 0011 NINTHS
 0012 NROUS
 0013 NI025
 0014 NI015
 0015 NEXP15
 0016 NWOUS
 0017 NSTOPS

STORAGE ASSIGNMENT (BLOCK, TYPE, RELATIVE LOCATION, NAME)

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0001 000156 211G	0001 000172 220G	0001 000176 223G	0001 000210 232G
0001 000251 247G	0000 012644 5000F	0000 012646 5001F	0000 012650 5002
0000 012641 5004F	0000 012653 5005F	0000 012677 5006F	0000 012711 5007
0000 012723 9001F	0003 R 000003 AL	0003 R 000002 AU	0000 R 012621 A1
0003 R 000004 BU	0000 R 012622 B1	0003 R 000007 CL	0003 R 000006 CU
0004 R 000000 D	0000 R 012627 USAR	0003 R 000010 DEL	0000 R 012626 USUM
0005 R 000631 ES	0005 R 000453 F	0005 R 000011 FUDGE	0000 R 007020 FX
0000 R 012632 G8	0000 R 012633 GC	0000 I 012616 I	0003 I 000011 IJ
0000 I 012637 JFLAG1	0000 I 012630 K	0000 I 012625 L	0000 I 012615 NC
0003 I 000000 NPAR	0003 I 000001 NPOINT	0000 I 012617 NTIMES	0000 R 003410 RX
0006 R 000000 SPRED1	0005 R 000000 SSE	0000 R 000000 SX	0000 R 012634 TA
0000 R 012636 TC	0005 R 004253 X	0005 R 004241 XM	

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 00101 2* DIMENSION X(200),F(9,207),E(9,200),SS(9),ES(9,200),D(9,3),FUDGE(2
 00101 3* 10,20),SE(9),SX(9,200),RY(9,200),FX(9,213)
 00103 4* COMMON/BLOCKA/NP,R,NPOINT,AU,AL,DU,PL,CU,CL,DEL,IJ
 00104 5* COMMON/BLOCKB/D
 00105 6* COMMON/BLOCKC/SS,FUDGE,FS,XN,SE,X,F,E
 00106 7* COMMON/BLOCKF/SPRED1
 00106 8* C NUMBER OF CYCLES IN FUDGE TABLE
 00107 9* READ(5,5003)NC
 00112 10* 5003 FORMAT(15)

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00112 11* C READ IN VALUES OF FUDGE TO BE USED
00113 12* DO 2 I=1,N2
00116 13* READ(5,5004)FUDGE(5,I),FUDGE(9,I)
00122 14* 5004 FORMAT(2F10.3)
00123 15* 2 CONTINUE
00125 16* READ(5,9000)NTIMES
00130 17* 9000 FORMAT(I5)
00131 18* DO 9099 I=1,NTIMES
00134 19* READ(5,5001)A1,C1,CL,AU,AL,BU,BL,CU,CL
00147 20* 5001 FORMAT(9F5.2)
00147 21* C A1,B1,C1 ARE THE INITIAL PARAMETER VALUES FOR THE CENTER
00147 22* C AU,AL,BU,BL,CU,CL ARE THE UPPER AND LOWER BOUNDS RESPECTIVELY ON
00147 23* C THE 3 CONTROL PARAMETERS
00150 24* READ(5,5001)NPARNUMBS,SPRCD1,DEL
00156 25* 5001 FORMAT(2I5,2F5.2)
00156 26* C NPARNUMBER OF PARAMETERS TO BE USED IN THE MODELS
00156 27* C NUSSENUMBER OF TIME PERIODS IN EACH TIME SERIES
00156 28* C SPRCD1=WIDTH OF THE FACTORIAL ALONG A MAJOR AXIS
00157 29* READ(5,5002)(X(I),I=1,NPARN)
00165 30* 5002 FORMAT(MF10.2)
00166 31* NPPOINT=(12+NPARN)+1
00166 32* C NPPOINT NUMBER OF DESIGN POINTS
00167 33* CALL FACTOR(A1,C1,SPRCD1)
00167 34* C F(9,200)=FORECASTS AT 9 DESIGN POINTS AND 200 TIME PERIODS
00167 35* C E(9,200)=ERRORS AT DESIGN POINTS AND TIME PERIODS
00167 36* C SSE=SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS
00167 37* C ES(9,200)=ERROR SQUARED AT DESIGN POINTS
00170 38* DO 3 I=1,9
00173 39* E(I,1)=0.0
00174 40* SSE(I)=0.0
00175 41* F(I,1)=0.0
00176 42* SE(I)=0.0
00176 43* C SSE=SUM OF ERRORS AT EACH DESIGN POINT
00177 44* F(I,12)=X(12)
00200 45* 3 CONTINUE
00202 46* XN=0.0
00202 47* C XN=NUMBER OF PERIODS WE HAVE BEEN IN CURRENT PHASE
00202 48* C BEGIN THE ACTUAL FORECAST
00202 49* C S(1)=ESTIMATE OF THE LEVEL COMPONENT AT TIME 1
00202 50* C X(1)=ACTUAL OBSERVATION
00202 51* C GA=SMOOTHING CONSTANT,0<GA<1
00202 52* C GB=SMOOTHING CONSTANT,0<GB<1
00202 53* C GC=SMOOTHING CONSTANT,0<GC<1
00202 54* C L=PERIODICITY OF THE SEASON
00202 55* C FX(I)=SEASONALITY FACTOR AT TIME I
00202 56* C RX(I)=TREND AT TIME I
00202 57* C F(I,K)=FORECAST FOR TIME IJ
00203 58* READ(5,11)I
00206 59* 11 FORMAT(I5)
00207 60* DSUM=0.0
00210 61* DO 12 I=1,L
00213 62* DSUM=DSUM+X(I)
00214 63* 12 CONTINUE
00216 64* DSUM=DSUM/FLOAT(L)
00217 65* DO 13 I=1,L
00222 66* DO 14 K=1,NPOINT
00225 67* 14 FX(I,K)=X(I)/DSUM

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00227 68*
00231 69*
00234 70*
00235 71*
00236 72*
00240 73*
00243 74*
00245 75*
00245 76*
00246 77*
00251 78*
00252 79*
00253 80*
00254 81*
00255 82*
00256 83*
00257 84*
00260 85*
00261 86*
00262 87*
00263 88*
00264 89*
00264 90*
00303 91*
00304 92*
00310 93*
00311 94*
00312 95*
00313 96*
00314 97*
00315 98*
00316 99*
00320 100*
00322 101*
00325 102*
00326 103*
00327 104*

13 CONTINUE
DO 15 K=1,NPOINT
  SX(K,12)=X(12)/FX(K,24)
  RX(K,12)=0.0
15 F(K,13)=(SX(K,12)+X(K,12))*FX(K,13)
DO 100 J=13,40
  WRITE(6,5005)
5005 FORMAT(1X,PERIOD, A1, B1, C1, FORECAST, ACTUAL, DEVIATION)
1  ENROR SQ. SPRED1 SX(K,IJ) RX(K,IJ) FX(K,IJ)**
DO 4 K=1,NPOINT
  E(K,IJ)=F(K,IJ)-X(IJ)
  ES(K,IJ)=(E(K,IJ)**2)
  SSE(K)=SSE(K)+(-K,IJ)**2)
  SL(K)=SE(K)+E(K,IJ)
  GA=D(K,1)
  GB=D(K,2)
  GC=D(K,3)
  SX(K,IJ)=GA*(X(IJ)/FX(K,IJ))+(1.0-GA)*(SX(K,IJ-1)+RX(K,IJ-1))
  RX(K,IJ)=GB*(SX(K,IJ)-SY(K,IJ-1))+(1.0-GB)*RX(K,IJ-1)
  FX(K,IJ)=GC*(X(IJ)/SX(K,IJ))+(1.0-GC)*FX(K,IJ)
  F(K,IJ+1)=(SX(K,IJ)+RX(K,IJ))*FX(K,IJ+1)
4  WRITE(6,5006)IJ,D(K,1),D(K,2),D(K,3),F(K,IJ),X(IJ),E(K,IJ),ES(K,IJ)
  1),SPRED1-SX(K,IJ),RX(K,IJ),FX(K,IJ)
5006 FORMAT(1X,2X,F6.3,2F5.3,F12.4,F11.4,F11.4,3F10.4)
  WRITE(6,5007)SE(NPOINT),SSE(NPOINT)
5007 FORMAT(1X,SUM OF ERRORS, F10.2,SX, SUM OF ERROR SQ. =, F10.2)
  XI=X+1.0
  TA=D(1,1)
  TB=D(1,2)
  TC=D(1,3)
  CALL DECIDE(TA,TB,TC,JFLAG)
  IF(JFLAG.EQ.1)CALL FACTOR(A1,B1,C1,SPRED1)
100 CONTINUE
9999 WRITE(6,9901)
9001 FORMAT(1H1)
STOP
END

```

END OF COMPILATION: NO DIAGNOSTICS.

WFOUR: IS FACTOR
FOR S40A-02/27/73-13:33:24 (1.0)

SUBROUTINE FACTOR ENTRY POINT 000,41

STORAGE USED: CODE(1) 000161; DATA(0); 000034; BLANK COMMON(2) 000000

COMMON BLOCKS:

0003	BLOKA	000012
0004	BLOKB	000033

EXTERNAL REFERENCES (BLOCK NAME)

0005	NW005
0006	1:1025
0007	1:1025

STORAGE ASSIGNMENT (BLOCK, TYPE, RELATIVE LOCATION, NAME)

D001	G00124	1000L	n001	000033	124G	0001	000113	166G	0001	000045	50I	
0003	000003	AL	0003	0000n2	2U	0003	000005	UL	0003	000004	BU	
0003	000006	CU	0034	R	0000n0	D	0003	000010	OEL	0003	000011	IJ
Q000	I	000000	K	0003	I	0000n0	I:PAR	0003	000001	NPOINT		

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00101 1* SUBROUTINE FACTR1A,B,C,SPREAD)
00103 2* DIMENSION D(9,3)
00104 3* COMMON/ALOKA/NP,R,NPOINT,AL,AL,BU,RL,CU,CL,DEL,IJ
00105 4* COMMON/BLK9/D
00105 5* C THIS SUBROUTINE FILLS UP THE FACTORIAL DESIGN MATRIX D WITH EACH ROW
00105 6* C REPRESENTING A DESIGN POINT. THE CENTER POINT IS ALWAYS IN THE FIRST
00106 7* D(1,1)=A
00107 8* D(1,2)=B
00110 9* D(1,3)=C
00110 10* IF (NPAR.EQ. 3)GO TO 50
00111 11* 400 D(2,1)=A+SPREAD,(1,0)
00113 12* D(3,1)=A+SPREAD,(1,0)
00114 13* D(4,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00115 14* D(5,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00116 15* D(2,2)=B+SPREAD,(1,0)
00117 16* D(3,2)=B+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00120 17* D(4,2)=B+SPREAD,(1,0)
00121 18* D(5,2)=B+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00122 19* DO 31 K=1,9
00123 20* 31 WRITE(6,98) D(K,1),D(K,2),D(K,3)
00126 21* GO TO 1000
00134 22* 50 D(2,1)=A+SPREAD,(1,0)
00135 23* D(3,1)=A+SPREAD,(1,0)
00136 24* D(4,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00137 25* D(5,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00140

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00141 26*      D(6,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00142 27*      D(7,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00143 28*      D(8,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00144 29*      D(9,1)=A+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00145 30*      D(2,2)=B+SPREAD,(1,0)
00146 31*      D(3,2)=B+SPREAD,(1,0)
00147 32*      D(4,2)=B+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00150 33*      D(5,2)=B+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00151 34*      D(6,2)=B+SPREAD,(1,0)
00152 35*      D(7,2)=B+SPREAD,(1,0)
00153 36*      D(8,2)=B+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00154 37*      D(9,2)=B+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00155 38*      D(2,3)=C+SPREAD,(1,0)
00156 39*      D(3,3)=C+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00157 40*      D(4,3)=C+SPREAD,(1,0)
00160 41*      D(5,3)=C+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00161 42*      D(6,3)=C+SPREAD,(1,0)
00162 43*      D(7,3)=C+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00163 44*      D(8,3)=C+SPREAD,(1,0)
00164 45*      D(9,3)=C+SPREAD,(-1,0)
00165 46*      DO 80 K=1,9
00170 47*      80 WRITE(16,98) D(K,1),D(K,2),D(K,3)
00176 48*      98 FORMAT(//,' MATRIX BEFORE CHECK IS',3F15.3)
00177 49*      1000 RETURN
00200 50*      END

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END OF COMPILATION: NO DIAGNOSTICS.

QFOR:IS DECIDE
FOR S10A-02/27/73-13:33:46 (1.0)

SUBROUTINE DECIDE ENTRY POINT 000R23

STORAGE USED: CODE(1) 000600; DATA(0) 000073; BLANK COMMON(2) 000000

COMMON BLOCKS:

0003 BLOKA 000012
0004 BLOKB 000033
0005 BLOKC 013603
0006 BLOKF 000001

EXTERNAL REFERENCES (BLOCK, NAME)

0007 SORT
0010 NERR35

STORAGE ASSIGNMENT (BLOCK, TYPE, RELATIVE LOCATION, NAME)

0001 000176 11L	0001 000015 110L	0001 000066 113L	0001 000103 114
0001 000215 12L	0001 000044 124G	0001 000235 13L	0001 000057 133
0001 000074 144G	0001 000241 20L	0001 000506 2000L	0001 000353 21L
0001 000412 23L	0001 000431 24L	0001 000451 25L	0001 000500 303
0003 000003 AL	0003 000002 AU	0004 R 000000 AVGE	0000 R 000026 JIG
0003 000004 BU	0003 000007 CL	0004 R 000006 CU	0004 R 000000 U
0000 R 000011 DIF	0000 R 000027 DMIN	0005 R 010173 E	0000 R 000034 EA
0000 R 000040 EC	0000 R 000025 EE	0004 R 000037 ELIMN	0000 R 000036 CLI
0005 R 004563 F	0005 R 000011 FUDGE	0004 I 000023 I	0003 I 000011 IJ
0000 I 000031 L	0003 000000 PAR	0003 I 000001 NPOINT	0000 R 000030 RAN
0005 R 004242 SE	0000 R 000033 SIGMA	0006 R 000000 SPREAD	0005 R 000000 SSE
0005 R 004253 X	0000 R 000024 XL	0005 R 004241 XH	

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00101      1*      SUBROUTINE DECIDE(A,B,C,JFLAG)
00103      2*      DIMENSION AVGE(1),SSE(9), FUDGE(20,20),ES(9,200),DIF(9),SE(9),X(20
00103      3*      10),F(9,200),E(9,200),D(9,3)
00104      4*      COMMON/BLOKA/ NMAX,NPOINT,AU,AL,BU,BL,CU,CL,DEL,IJ
00105      5*      COMMON/BLOKB/D
00106      6*      COMMON/BLOKC/SSE,FUDGE,FS,XH,SE,X,F,E
00107      7*      COMMON/BLOKF/SPREAD
00110      8*      IF(XH.GT. 1) GO TO 110
00112      9*      SUMS=0.0
00113     10*      JFLAG=0
00114     11*      GO TO 2000
00115     12*      110 DO 111 I=1,NPOINT
00120     13*      111 AVGE(I)=SSE(I)/XH
00122     14*      XLE=XH-1.0
00122     15*      C XLE=NUMBER OF PERIODS SINCE WE CHANGED TO A NEW PHASE
00123     16*      DO 112 I=1,NPOINT

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00126 17*      EC=(CSE(I)-FS(I,IJ))/XL
00127 18*      112 DIF(I)=EF-ES(I,IJ)
00131 19*      SIGD=DIF(I)
00132 20*      DO 113 I=2,NPOINT
00135 21*      IF(DIF(I).LE. SIGD)GO TO 113
00137 22*      SIGD=DIF(I)
00140 23*      113 CONTINUE
00142 24*      DRIN=DIF(I)
00143 25*      DO 114 I=2,NPOINT
00146 26*      IF(DIF(I).GE. DRIN) GO TO 114
00150 27*      DRIN=DIF(I)
00151 28*      114 CONTINUE
00153 29*      RANGE=APS(SIGD-AMIN)
00154 30*      L=XN
00155 31*      S=RANGE*FUDGE(NPOINT,L)
00156 32*      SUMS=SUMS+S
00157 33*      SIGMA=SUMS/XL
00157 34*      C      CALCULATE EFFCIS
00160 35*      IF(NPOINT.EQ. 1) GO TO 20
00162 36*      EA=0.5*(AVGE(2)+AVGE(3)-AVGE(4)-AVGE(5))
00163 37*      EB=0.5*(AVGE(2)+AVGE(4)-AVGE(3)-AVGE(5))
00164 38*      ELIMP=3.0*SIGMA/SQRT(XN)
00165 39*      ELIMP=ELIMP
00166 40*      JFLAG=0
00167 41*      IF(EA.LE. ELIMP) GO TO 11
00171 42*      IF(DI(1,1).LE. n-1)GO TO 11
00173 43*      A=A+SPREAD
00174 44*      JFLAG=1
00175 45*      GO TO 12
00176 46*      11 IF(EA.GE. ELIMP)GO TO 12
00200 47*      IF(DI(1,1).GE. n-9)GO TO 12
00202 48*      A=A+SPREAD
00203 49*      JFLAG=1
00204 50*      12 IF(EB.LE. ELIMP)GO TO 13
00206 51*      IF(DI(1,2).LE. n-1) GO TO 13
00210 52*      B=B+SPREAD
00211 53*      JFLAG=1
00212 54*      GO TO 14
00213 55*      13 IF(EB.GE. ELIMP)GO TO 14
00215 56*      IF(DI(1,2).GE. n-9) GO TO 14
00217 57*      B=B+SPREAD
00220 58*      JFLAG=1
00221 59*      14 IF(JFLAG.EQ. 1) GO TO 200
00223 60*      GO TO 2000
00224 61*      20 EA=0.25*(AVGE(5)+AVGE(3)+AVGE(2)+AVGE(4)-AVGE(6)-AVGE(7)-AVGE(8)-A
00224 62*      IVGE(9))
00225 63*      EB=0.25*(AVGE(3)+AVGE(2)+AVGE(6)+AVGE(7)-AVGE(5)-AVGE(4)-AVGE(9)-A
00225 64*      IVGE(9))
00226 65*      EC=0.25*(AVGE(6)+AVGE(2)+AVGE(4)+AVGE(8)-AVGE(7)-AVGE(3)-AVGE(5)-A
00226 66*      IVGE(9))
00227 67*      ELIMP=3.0*SIGMA/SQRT(1.0/(2.0*XN))
00230 68*      ELIMP=ELIMP
00231 69*      IF(EA.LE. ELIMP) GO TO 21
00233 70*      IF(DI(1,1).LE. n-1) GO TO 21
00235 71*      A=A+SPREAD
00236 72*      JFLAG=1
00237 73*      GO TO 22

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00240 74*      21 IF (EA .GE. ELIM) GO TO 22
00242 75*      IF (D(1,1) .GE. 0.9) GO TO 22
00244 76*      A=A+SPREAD
00245 77*      JFLAG=1
00246 78*      22 IF (EA .LE. ELIM) GO TO 23
00250 79*      IF (D(1,2) .LE. 0.1) GO TO 23
00252 80*      B=B+SPREAD
00253 81*      JFLAG=1
00254 82*      GO TO 24
00255 83*      23 IF (FB .GE. ELIM) GO TO 24
00257 84*      IF (D(1,2) .GE. 0.9) GO TO 24
00261 85*      B=B+SPREAD
00262 86*      JFLAG=1
00263 87*      24 IF (EC .LE. ELIM) GO TO 25
00265 88*      IF (D(1,3) .LE. 0.1) GO TO 25
00267 89*      C=C+SPREAD
00270 90*      JFLAG=1
00271 91*      GO TO 14
00272 92*      25 IF (ED .GE. ELIM) GO TO 14
00274 93*      IF (D(1,3) .GE. 0.9) GO TO 14
00276 94*      C=C+SPREAD
00277 95*      JFLAG=1
00300 96*      GO TO 14
00301 97*      900 XN=0.0
00302 98*      DO 901 I=1,NPOINT
00305 99*      SSE(I)=0.0
00306 100*      SE(I)=0.0
00307 101*      F(I,I+1)=X(I,I)
00310 102*      901 E(I,I)=0.0
00312 103*      2000 RETURN
00313 104*      END

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END OF COMPILATION: NO DIAGNOSTICS.

333445

2FOR15 MAIN
FOR 5114-05/13/73-05:12:25 (10)

MAIN PROGRAM

STORAGE USED: (MODE1) 00000000 (DATA1) 0111201 BLANK COMMON(2) 0000000

COMMON BLOCKS:

0003 BLOCK 001602

EXTERNAL REFERENCES (BLOCK, NAME)

0004 SIMPLEX
0005 INTIN
0006 PRODS
0007 L1025
0010 L1015
0011 L1005
0012 ASTOPS

STORAGE ASSIGNMENT (BLOCK, TYPE, RELATIVE LOCATION, NAME)

0000	011020	11F	0001	000023	116G	0001	000042	122G	0001	000131
0001	000151	175G	0001	000163	204G	0001	000175	213G	0001	000220
0000	011016	5001F	0000	011025	5003F	0000	011025	5005F	0000	011051
0000	011067	5006F	0000	011062	7001F	0000	011102	9000F	0000	R 010770
0003	R 011575	60	0000	R 010777	9	0003	R 001600	01	0003	R 001577
0000	R 011005	05AF	0000	R 011005	05UM	0000	R 000310	E	0000	R 011001
0000	R 007210	FX	0000	R 011010	5A	0000	R 011011	6B	0000	R 011011
0003	I 001601	1J	0000	I 011013	1L	0000	I 011007	K	0000	I 010771
0003	I 001574	NEW	0000	I 010772	00SS	0000	I 010771	NPT	0000	I 010771
0000	R 011002	S	0000	R 003650	RX	0000	R 011004	SUM	0000	R 011003
0003	R 000014	S	0000	R 000000	X					

00100	1*	C THIS PROGRAM USES THE REGULAR SIMPLEX
00101	2*	DIMENSION X(2001,014,31,514,2201),F(4,2201),V(4,2201),RX(4,2201),SX(
00101	3*	1220),FX(4,2201)
00103	4*	COMMON/BLOCK/DAY,NEW,AD,AL,2U,BL,1J
00103	5*	C NPTS=NUMBER OF TIME SERIES TO BE ANALYZED.
00104	6*	READ(5,5001)NPTS
00107	7*	5007 FORMAT(14)
00110	8*	READ(5,5003)NPT
00110	9*	C NPTS= THE NUMBER OF POINTS USED IN THE SIMPLEX
00113	10*	5003 FORMAT(14)
00114	11*	NOBS=200
00115	12*	20.9499,KJF1,NPTS
00120	13*	READ(5,5001) (X(I),I=1,NOBS)
00120	14*	C Y(I)=VALUES OF TIME SERIES
00126	15*	5001 FORMAT(2F10.2)
00127	16*	READ(5,1111)
00132	17*	11 FORMAT(15)

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00123 1c* READ(15,5000)A,B,EDGE,NCBS,AL,AN,BL,BU
00145 1c* 5000 FORMAT(2F5.2,F5.3,15,F5.2)
00146 2c* J(1,1)=A
00147 21c* J(1,2)=B
00150 22c* P=EDGE*0.9059
00151 23c* C=EDGE*0.2528
00152 24c* J(2,1)=P+A
00153 25c* J(2,2)=C+B
00154 26c* J(3,1)=C+A
00155 27c* J(3,2)=P+B
00156 2c* C D(4,3)=THE DESIGN MATRIX
00156 2c* NC=BU
00157 3c* SUMS0=0.0
00160 31c* SUM=0.0
00160 32c* C BEGIN THE ACTUAL FORECAST
00160 33c* C SX(I)=ESTIMATE OF THE LEVEL COMPONENT AT TIME I
00160 34c* C AT(I)=ACTUAL OBSERVATION
00160 35c* C GRESMOOTHING CONSTANT/GCBAK1
00160 36c* C GRESMOOTHING CONSTANT/GCBAK1
00160 37c* C GRESMOOTHING CONSTANT/GCBAK1
00160 38c* C L=PERIODICITY OF THE SEASON
00160 39c* C FX(I)=SEASONALITY FACTOR AT TIME I
00160 40c* C RX(I)=TREND AT TIME I
00160 41c* C FX(K,I)=FORECAST FOR TIME I,I
00161 42c* USUM=0.0
00162 43c* DO 12 I=1,L
00165 44c* USUM=USUM+X(I)
00166 45c* 12 CONTINUE
00170 46c* JENR=USUM/FLOAT(L)
00171 47c* DO 13 I=1,L
00174 48c* DO 14 K=1,NPT
00177 49c* 14 FX(K,I+L)=X(I)/JENR
00201 50c* 13 CONTINUE
00203 51c* DO 15 K=1,NPT
00206 52c* SX(K,12)=X(12)/FX(K,24)
00207 53c* FX(K,12)=0.0
00210 54c* 15 FX(K,13)=(SX(K,12)+RX(K,12))+FX(K,13)
00212 55c* DO 100 IJ=11,200
00215 56c* WRITE(6,5005)
00217 57c* 5005 FORMAT(1,PERIOD A, B, FORECAST, ACTUAL, DEVIAT
00217 58c* 10H ERROR SQ, SX(A,IJ) RX(K,IJ) FX(K,IJ))
00220 59c* DO 4 K=1,NPT
00223 60c* E(K,IJ)=F(K,IJ)-X(IJ)
00224 61c* V(K,IJ)=E(K,IJ)**2
00225 62c* GA=D(K,1)
00226 63c* GJ=D(K,2)
00227 64c* GC=0.0
00230 65c* FX(K,IJ)=0.0
00231 66c* SX(K,IJ)=GA*(X(IJ)/FX(K,IJ))+(1.0-GA)*(SX(K,IJ-1)+RX(K,IJ-1))
00232 67c* FX(K,IJ+1)=GA*(X(IJ)/SX(K,IJ-1))+(1.0-GA)*FX(K,IJ)
00233 68c* RX(K,IJ)=GC*(SX(K,IJ)-SX(K,IJ-1))+(1.0-GC)*RX(K,IJ-1)
00234 69c* FX(K,IJ+1)=(SX(K,IJ)+RX(K,IJ))*FX(K,IJ+1)
00235 70c* 4 WRITE(6,5006)IJ,D(K,1),D(K,2),F(K,IJ),X(IJ),E(K,IJ),V(K,IJ),SX(K,
00235 71c* IJ),FX(K,IJ),FX(K,IJ)
00252 72c* 5006 FORMAT(1,2X,F6.3,1F5.3, F12.4,F11.4,E16.5,E16.5,3F10.4)
00253 73c* CALL SIMPLX(11,NPT)
00254 74c* WRITE(6,7001)IL

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33247

00257	75*	7001 FORMAT(1 THE NEW ROW IS = ',12)
00260	76*	SUMS00=SUM(1L,1J)
00261	77*	SUMS00=S000+12(1L,1J)+2)
00262	78*	WRITE(6,S000)S00,SUMS00
00266	79*	5000 FORMAT(1 SUM OF ERROR = ',E16.5,2X,1SUM OF ERROR Sq. = ',E16.5)
00267	80*	100 CONTINUE
00271	81*	9999 WRITE(6,9000)
00274	82*	9000 FORMAT(1011
00275	83*	STOP
00276	84*	END

END OF COMPILATION: NO DIAGNOSTICS.

```

2FOR:15 SIMPLX
FOR:511A-05/13/73-16:22:29 1:01
12
SUBROUTINE SIMPLX ENTRY POINT 000272

STORAGE USED: CODE(1) 0003071 DATA(1) 0016651 BLANK COMMON(2) 000000

COMMON BLOCKS:

0003 BLOCK 001602

EXTERNAL REFERENCES (BLOCK, NAME)

0004 NADUS
0005 MID25
0006 NERN35

STORAGE ASSIGNMENT (BLOCK, TYPE, RELATIVE LOCATION, NAME)

0001 00026 IL C001 000110 10L 0001 000237 100L 0001 0000
0001 000076 126G 0001 000124 141G 0001 000131 146G 0001 0001
0001 000251 204G 0001 000220 35L 0001 000225 36L 0000 0001
0003 R 001576 AL 0003 R 001573 AU 0000 K 001607 BIG 0003 R 0016
0003 R 000000 W 0000 R 001611 ONEY 0000 R 001612 G 0000 I 0016
0000 001636 INVP3 0000 I 001611 J 0000 I 001605 KNTR 0000 I 0016
0000 I 001604 MP 0000 R 001572 OF 0000 K 000000 S 0003 R 0000

00101 1* SUBROUTINE SIMPLX(1L,NPT)
00103 2* DIMENSION D(14,3),S(101,14,220),XV(9,220),RE(10)
00104 3* COMMON/BLOCK/D,V,NEW,AU,AL,BU,BL,IJ
00105 4* NPT=1
00106 5* KNTR=0
00107 6* DO 5 I=1,NPT
00112 7* 5 XV(I,IJ)=V(I,IJ)
00114 8* 1 SIG=XV(1,1)
00115 9* KNTR=KNTR+1
00116 10* IF(KNTR.GT. (NPT+1)) WRITE(6,60V2)
00121 11* IF(KNTR.GT. 4) GO TO 111
00123 12* 60D2=DATA(1,30,2HELP)
00124 13* N=1
00125 14* DO 10 I=2,NPT
00130 15* IF(15 .GE. XV(I,IJ)) GO TO 10
00132 16* SIG=XV(I,1)
00133 17* N=I
00134 18* 10 CONTINUE
00136 19* IF(N.EQ. NEW) GO TO 35
00140 20* DO 20 I=1,MP
00143 21* 20 S(I)=0.0
00145 22* DO 21 I=1,NP
00150 23* DO 21 J=1,NPT

```


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